

# **How Learning improves workforce skills and qualifications, lessons from Tyne and Wear**

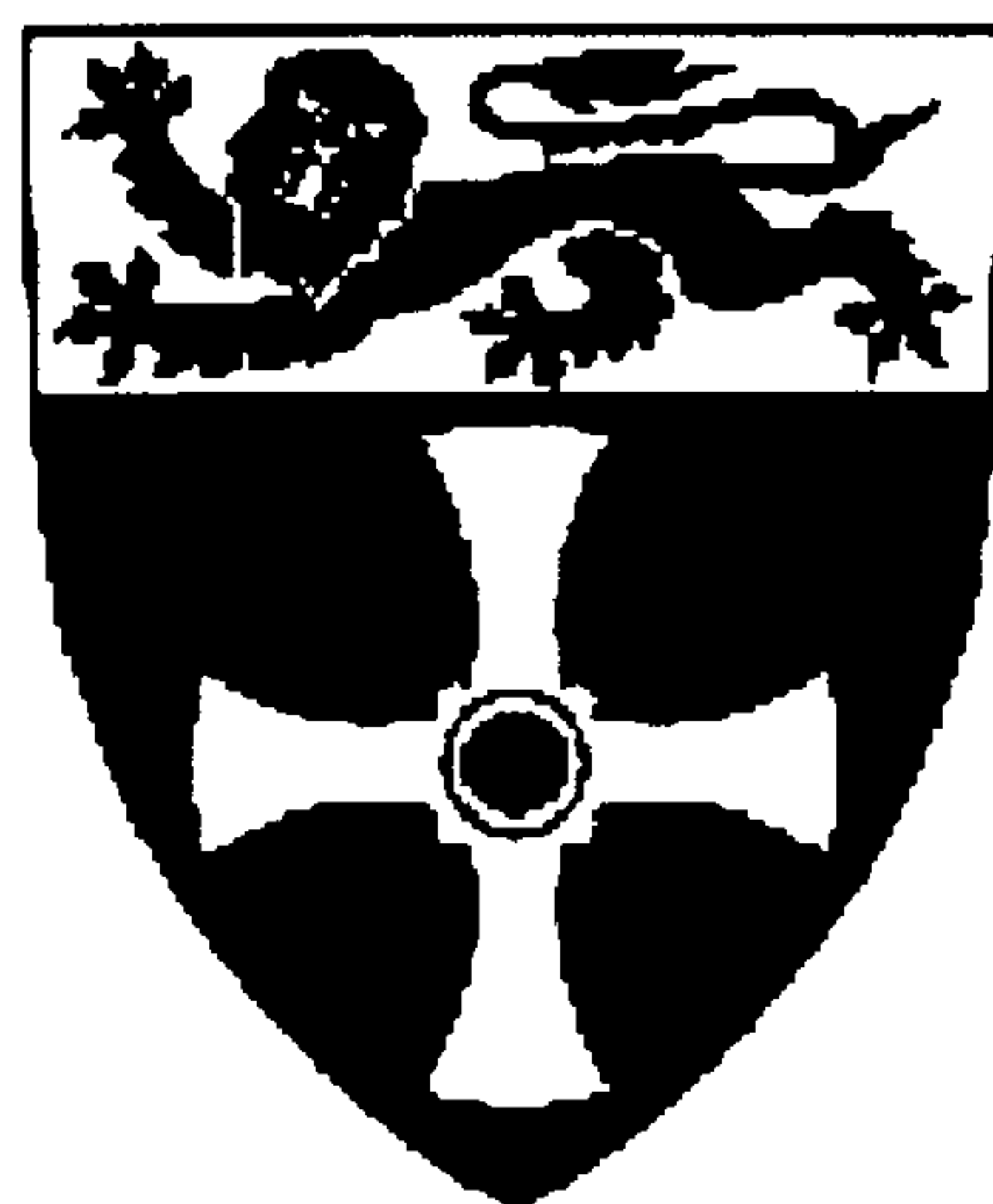
**By  
Safaa Shaaban**

NEWCASTLE UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

-----  
206 53263 9  
-----

*Thesis L8575*

UNIVERSITY OF  
NEWCASTLE UPON TYNE



**University of Newcastle, England**

**August 2007**

# **How Learning improves workforce skills and qualifications, lessons from Tyne and Wear**

**By  
Safaa Shaaban**

**A thesis submitted to the school of Architecture, Planning and Landscape at Newcastle University in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of doctor of learning and planning**

**Approved -----**

**University of Newcastle, England  
August 2007**



## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

Many thanks go equally to all the people who contributed to the study. However a special thanks to my great supervisor Mr. / Stuart Cameron who has shown patience and dedication to my challenge ideas and work. This dissertation could not have been written without the guidance and direction, of my supervisor in addition to his encouragement and highly support to me throughout my academic programme. Beside my supervisor, I would like to thank the department secretary Mrs. / Marian Kyte for her highly support and professional work.

I am also greatly indebted to my great husband (Mohamed) for his patience, encouragement and support during my study, my daughters, family and friends for their support and encouragement.

Last, but not least, I am grateful to the professionals who gave up their time to participate in this research.

## ABSTRACT

This research study will examine three learning approaches which the UK government uses to improve the workforce skills and qualifications in North East region of England. These learning approaches are Life-Long learning (Basic Skills), E-learning (Leardirect) and Work-Based Learning. This study is focused on the education and training policy in England that serve the improvement of workforce skills and qualifications at national, regional and local level in England. It will examine the lessons which can be learned in Tyne and Wear as a model of best practices of policies in England, and their applicability in to adult learning in Egypt.

The objectives of this research are: Firstly to examine the contribution of learning/training to achieving the objective of “building an adaptable and highly skilled workforce” in the Regional Economic Strategy (RES) 2003-2006 for the North East region in England. Secondly, to develop recommendations and ideas from the best approaches used in England to be implemented in Egypt to improve workforce skills and qualifications.

This study is divided into two main parts. The first part is conducting a research which examines how the government bodies and its partners work together to improve the workforce skills and qualifications in Tyne and Wear in the North East of England by using learning through different approaches,. The second part illustrates the situation in Egypt and suggests project ideas to be implemented based on learning lessons and case study from England.

This research study involves a qualitative research methodology. Secondary source data was examined at the national, regional and local levels. Interviews were conducted with the stakeholders of organisations at the local level. The study examines the roles of a range of organisations and networks, and the mechanisms they use for understanding learning needs, the development of learning approaches, and the way these organisations reach local people, and affect their skills.



## **List of Abbreviations**

ABSSU	The Adult Basic Skills Strategy Unit
ALI	Adult learning Inspector
ALTP	Adult Learning Training Project
BSC	Basic Skills Agency
CCLD	Child Care and Learning and Development
COVE	Centre of Vocational Excellence
CRB	Criminal Record Bureau
CSOs	Civil Society Organisation
CVS	Community Voluntary Services
DEE	Department for Education and Employment
DFES	Department for Education and Skills
DTI	Department for Trade and Industry
DWP	Department for Work and Pensions
EEA	European Economic Area
E2E	Entry to Employment
ELLI	European Lifelong Learning Initiative
ELWA	Education and Learning Wales
ERT	European Round Table of Industrialists
ESOL	English Speaker for Other Language
EU	European Union
FE	Further Education
FEFC	Further Education Funding Councils
GAFI	General Authorities for Investment
GALAE	The General Authority for literacy and Adult Education
GCSE	General Certificate for Secondary Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GOE	Government of Egypt
GVA	Gross Value Added
HE	Higher Education
HRD	Human Resources Development
HRM	Human Resources Management
IAG	Induction and Guidance
IALS	International Adult Literacy Survey
ICT	Information Communication Technology
ILP	Individual Learning Plan
IT	Information Technology
LDAs	Local Development Agencies
LECs	Local Enterprise Companies
LLDD	Learners with learning Difficulties and Disabilities
LLSC	Local Learning and Skills Council
LLPS	Local learning partnerships
LSC	Learning and Skills Council
MCIT	Ministry of Communication and Information Technology
MOD	Ministry of Defence
NCVS	Newcastle Council for Voluntary Services

NDPBS	Non-Department Public Bodies
NGOs	Non-Governmental organisations
NTP	National Training Programme
NVQ	National Vocational Qualification
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education
PRA	Participatory Rural Approaches
PSA	Public Services Agreement
RDAs	Regional Development Agencies
RES	Regional Economic Strategy
RSP	Regional Skills Partnership
RSS	Regional Spatial Strategy
SME	Small and Medium Enterprises
SSAs	The Sector Skills Agreement
SSC	Sector Skills Councils
SSDA	Sector Skills Development Agency
TEC	Training and Enterprise Council
TEED	Training Enterprise and Education Directorate
TEVT	Technical Vocational Education and Training
TFW	Training for Work
TLRP	Teaching and Learning Research Programme
TNA	Raining Needs Analysis
UFI	University of Industry
UK	United Kingdom
UNESCO	The United Nations Education, Scientific and Culture Organisation
VODA	Voluntary Organisation Development Agency
VONNE	Voluntary Organisation's Network North East
WBLA	Work Based Learning for Adults
WTO	World Trade Organisation
YOS	Youth Opportunity Scheme

List of Table and Diagram

	Table or diagram	Page
Fig 1	Honey and Mumford: Typology of learners	p44
Fig 2	Research strategy	P60
Fig 3	Triangulation process	P70
Fig 4	Data collecting diagram	P70
Fig 5	Location of North-East England and Tyne and Wear	P109
Fig 6	Qualification levels	p112
Fig 7	Proportion of workers in each qualification skill category	P120
Fig 8	Literacy and numeracy rates in Tyne and Wear, North-East and England	P123
Fig 9	Literacy and numeracy certificates in England	P141
Fig 10	The Education system in Egypt	P200



# **CONTENTS**

<b>CHAPTER (1) INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>PAGE</b>
1. 1 LINKING LEARNING WITH DEVELOPMENT	1-2
1.2 THE BASIS OF THE RESEARCHER’S INTEREST	2
1.3 THE PURPOSE OF THE UK CASE STUDY	3
1.4 FOCUS OF STUDY	3-4
1.5 THE RESEARCH APPROACH	4-5
1.6 THE THESIS STRUCTURE	5-6
 <b>CHAPTER (2) LITERATURE REVIEW</b>	
<b>2.1 GENERAL VIEW OF LEARNING AND ADULT TRAINING</b>	
2.1.1 Adult Learning	7-8
2.1.2 Psychological Self-Image of the Adult Learner	8-9
2.1.3 Learning Expectations of the Adult	9-11
2.1.4 What is the meaning of learning?	11-12
2.1.5 Lifelong learning	12-13
2.1.6 Learning organisation	13-16
2.1.7 Learning society	16-17
2.1.8 Barriers to learning	17-23
2.1.9 Motivation for learning	23-26
<b>2.2 LEARNING AND ITS ROLE IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT</b>	
2.2.1 Learning and economic development	26-29
2.2.2 What is Human Resources Development HRD?	29-32
2.2.3 Human Resources development and learning	32
2.2.4 People knowledge and skills development	32-34
<b>2.3 IMPROVING ADULT SKILLS THROUGH DIFFERENT LEARNING APPROACHES</b>	
2.3.1 Steps of designing learning and training programmes	34
2.3.1.1 Identifying learning needs	35-38



2.3.1.2 Methods of identifying learning needs	38-39
2.3.1.3 Choice of method and lists the priorities	39-40
2.3.1.4 Learning theories	40-45
2.3.1.5 Models of learning	45-48
2.3.1.6 Learning style and strategy	48-50
2.3.1.7 Learning objectives	49-50
2.3.1.8 Learning activities	50
2.3.1.9 Learning material	50-51
<b>2.3.2 Gaining skills through different learning approaches</b>	
2.3.2.1 Lifelong Learning (Basic Skills)	51-52
2.3.2.2 E-Learning	53-55
2.3.2.3 Work Based Learning	55-58
 <b>CHAPTER (3) RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b>	
<b>3.1 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS</b>	<b>59-60</b>
<b>3.2 RESEARCH TECHNIQUES</b>	<b>60-61</b>
<b>3.3 RESEARCH METHODS IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH</b>	<b>61</b>
3.3.1 Meanings and characteristics of qualitative research	61-62
3.3.2 Interviews in qualitative research	62-65
3.3.3 Participant Observation	66
3.3.4 Documentary Analysis	66-67
3.3.5 Analysing data in Qualitative Research	67
<b>3.4 UK RESEARCH APPROACH</b>	<b>67-69</b>
3.4.1 Data collection and analysis and triangulation	69-71
3.4.2 Interview techniques and process	71
<b>3.5 RESEARCH PLAN</b>	<b>71-72</b>
<b>3.6 EGYPTIAN APPROACH</b>	<b>72</b>
<b>3.7 ETHICAL ISSUES IN THE RESEARCH INTERVIEWS</b>	<b>73</b>

<b>3.8 STRENGTHES, WEAKNESSES AND CHALLENGES IN THE STUDY</b>	<b>73-75</b>
 <b>CHAPTER (4) NATIONAL STRATEGIC VIEW FOR ENGLAND</b>	
<b>4.1 HISTORICAL VIEW OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRANING (VET) SCHEMES AND POLICY IN ENGLAND</b>	<b>76</b>
4.1.1 VET policy in the 1960s	76-78
4.1.2 VET policy in the 1970s	78
4.1.3 VET policy in the 1980s	78-81
4.1.4 VET policy in the 1990s	81-83
4.1.5 VET policy in the 2000s	83-85
<b>4.2 CURRENT POLICY- THE NATIONAL STRATEGY FOR SKILLS IMPROVEMENT IN ENGLAND</b>	<b>85</b>
4.2.1 The UK Strategies for improving skills	86-90
<b>4.3 RELEVANT GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS</b>	<b>90</b>
4.3.1 The Department for Education + Skills (DFES)	91
4.3.2 The Department for Work and Pensions (DWP)	91-93
4.3.3 The Department of Trade and Industry (DTI)	93
4.3.4 Adult Learning Inspectorate (ALI)	93-95
 <b>CHAPTER (5) REGIONAL OVERVIEW</b>	
<b>5.1 NORTH EAST REGIONAL VIEW</b>	<b>96-97</b>
<b>5.2 SKILLS ORGANISATIONS IN THE NORTH-EAST (NDPBs) REGIONAL PARTNERS</b>	<b>97</b>
5.2.1 Regional Learning and Skills Council (LSCs)	97-98
5.2.2 University of Industry (UFI)/ Learndirect	98-99
5.2.3 Regional Skills Partnership (RSP)	99-100
5.2.4 Sector Skills Councils	100
5.2.5 One North East RDA for North East (RDA)	100-101
5.2.6 Business Link	102
5.2.7 Connexions	102-103



<b>5.3 REVIEW OF THE REGIONAL ECONOMIC STRATEGIES (RES) FOR NORTH EAST</b>	<b>103-104</b>
<b>5.3.1 Regional Economic Strategy (RES) view for North East 2003-2006</b>	<b>104-105</b>
<b>5.3.2 Regional Economic Strategy (RES) view for North East 2006</b>	<b>105-108</b>
 <b>CHAPTER (6) LOCAL CASE STUDY FOR LEARNING STRATEGIES IN TYNE AND WEAR</b>	
<b>6.1 AREA PROFILE (Tyne and Wear)</b>	<b>110-111</b>
<b>6.2 TARGET GROUP FOR ENGLAND RESEARCH</b>	<b>111-112</b>
<b>6.3 THE ROLE OF DIFFERENT PARTNERS IN IDENTIFYING LEARNING NEEDS</b>	<b>112</b>
<b>6.3.1 LSC identifies learning needs</b>	<b>113-114</b>
<b>6.3.2 UFI/Learndirect identifies learning needs</b>	<b>114-116</b>
<b>6.3.3 Providers identify learning needs</b>	<b>116-120</b>
<b>6.4 EMPLOYMENT –RELATED SKILLS</b>	<b>120-122</b>
<b>6.5 LEARNING NEEDS AND ISSUES IN TYNE &amp; WEAR</b>	<b>123</b>
<b>6.5.1 Basic Skills</b>	<b>123-124</b>
<b>6.6 LSC PRIORITIES AND STRATEGIES FOR TYNE &amp;WEAR</b>	<b>124</b>
<b>6.6.1 Priority (1)</b>	<b>125</b>
<b>6.6.2 Priority (2)</b>	<b>125-126</b>
<b>6.6.3 Priority (3)</b>	<b>126-128</b>
<b>6.7 PROVIDERS ON LOCAL LEVEL</b>	<b>128</b>
<b>6.7.1 Learndirect centres</b>	<b>128-130</b>
<b>6.7.2 Council Voluntary Services/ VONNE</b>	<b>130-132</b>
<b>6.7.3 Private business providers</b>	<b>132</b>
<b>6.7.4 Community Development Centres</b>	<b>133</b>
<b>6.7.5 Special Projects</b>	<b>133-134</b>
<b>6.7.6 Further Education Colleges</b>	<b>134-136</b>

<b>CHAPTER (7) LEARNING APPROACHES,</b>	
<b>FINDINGS AND BEST PRACTICE IN THE CASE</b>	
<b>STUDY OF TYNE AND WEAR</b>	
<b>7.1 LIFE LONG LEARNING (BASIC SKILLS)</b>	<b>138-139</b>
7.1.1 The Basic Skills strategic context	139-140
7.1.2 The Basic Skills implementation process	140-142
7.1.3 The evaluation process in Basic Skills	142-143
7.1.4 Research findings in Basic Skills	143-147
7.1.5 Best Practice in Basic Skills	147-149
<b>7.2 E-LEARNING (LEARNDIRECT)</b>	<b>149</b>
7.2.1 Learndirect strategic context	149-150
7.2.2 The Learndirect implementation process	150-154
7.2.3 The evaluation process in Learndirect courses	154-155
7.2.4 The Research findings in E-Learning (Learndirect)	155-160
7.2.5 Best practices in E-Learning	160-162
<b>7.3 WORK BASED LEARNING</b>	<b>162</b>
7.3.1 The strategic context	162-165
7.3.2 The Work-Based Learning implementation process	165-168
7.3.3 The evaluation process in Work-based learning	168-169
7.3.4 Research finding in Work-based Learning	169-173
7.3.5 Best practice in Work-based learning	173-179
<b>CHAPTER (8) RECOMMENDATIONS AND</b>	
<b>CONCLUSION FOR THE FIRST PART OF THE STUDY</b>	
<b>8.1 BARRIERS TO LEARNING</b>	<b>180-182</b>
<b>8.2 MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING</b>	<b>182-183</b>
<b>8.3. STRENGTHS, WEAKNESSES AND</b>	<b>183</b>
<b>RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE THREE LEARNING</b>	
<b>APPROACHES OF THE RESEARCH IN ENGLAND</b>	
8.3.1 Lifelong Learning (Basic Skills)	183-184
8.3.2 E-Learning (Learndirect)	184-185



8.3.3 Work Based Learning	186-187
8.4 EVALUATION AND LEARNING SCHEMES	187-189

## CHAPTER (9) RECOMMENDED IDEAS FOR EGYPT DRAWN FROM THE RESEARCH IN ENGLAND

9.1 EGYPTIAN PROFILE	190
9.2 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN EGYPT	191
9.2.1 Economic Profile	191-192
9.2.2 Egyptian Economic Reform Strategy	192-193
9.2.3 Future Economic Possibilities	193
9.3 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT	193-196
9.4 LABOUR MARKET SKILLS ISSUES IN EGYPT	196
9.4.1 Availability and quality of labour as a limiting factor	196
9.4.2 Small and medium enterprises and large public companies in traditional sectors are not competitive on labour productivity	196-197
9.4.3 Egypt's technical and vocational education and training (TVET) system seems to contribute to its unemployment rates, especially to the rates for youth	197
9.4.4 Education and Employment	198
9.4.5 Status of the Skills Training Sector	199
9.5 EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM AND REFORM IN EGYPT	199
9.5.1 Organisation, Structure, and Management of the Educational System	200
9.5.2 General Structure of Education	200-202
9.5.3 Objectives of Educational Reforms	202-203
9.5.4 Objectives of reform in Vocational Technical Education	203-204
9.5.5 Examples of Educational Reform Projects in Egypt	204-205
9.6 LESSONS FOR EGYPT FROM THE NORTH EAST	205

<b>CASE STUDY</b>	
<b>9.6.1 Comparison of problems between England and Egypt</b>	<b>205-206</b>
<b>9.6.2 Comparison in reference to the three learning Programmes</b>	<b>206-209</b>
<b>9.7 IDEAS DRAWN FROM THE BEST PRACTICES AND LEARNING LESSONS CASE STUDIES IN THE NORTH EAST OF ENGLAND</b>	<b>209</b>
<b>9.7.1 Project Title (Promoting the Role of Teachers skills as Workforce)</b>	<b>210-213</b>
<b>9.7.2 Project Title (Workforce Skills Development)</b>	<b>213-216</b>
<b>9.7.3 Project Title (E-Learning and Vocational Education Project)</b>	<b>216-219</b>
 <b>CHAPTER (10) CONCLUSION</b>	
<b>10.1 ANSWERING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS</b>	<b>220-222</b>
<b>10.2 SUMMARY FINDING IN THE RESEARCH STUDY</b>	<b>222-224</b>
<b>10.3 STRENGTHS AND BENEFITS OF THE RESEARCH</b>	<b>224-225</b>



# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

“Unlocking the potential of individual people by giving them the chance to acquire skills and qualifications will be of greatest importance in the years ahead. It will not only determine success and self-fulfilment for individuals themselves. It will also be essential to sustain a successful national economy in an increasingly competitive world.”

(DE,1991:23)

With the progress of the twenty first century, development continues to be extremely significant in every aspect in our life. Therefore, learning is, in fact, an important tool that needs to be constantly improved in order to achieve the aspired development. Learning is the ability to acquire knowledge through various processes integrated into people’s lives. It is the production and distribution of knowledge, learning of new skills, and the development of methods of education. Accordingly, learning is so essential for the continued survival of the world. It is central to development. It empowers people, strengthens nations, and is the key to the attainment of economic development goals.

### **1.1 LINKING LEARNING WITH DEVELOPMENT**

Over the past few decades, debates and policies related to development focused mainly on the increase of the Gross National Product and accordingly tried to identify indicators to measure it as a criteria to development. However, there is a gradual realisation that development implies primarily human development, which necessitated a rethinking of development policies and national priorities. Considering its national policies, Egypt has identified human resources development as a priority. Linking education and economic development has implied that education is a significant medium for preparing an adult labour force that is literate and skilled. However, the challenge of high illiteracy rate with its negative consequences was accompanied with a concern for identifying appropriate skills necessary in a



changing world. Thus, the development of critical skills was significantly important. These skills include experiential and applied skills. In addition, the encouragement of linguistic competency of the national and international languages was one of the new skills emphasised. Moreover, human development necessitated that the education strategy integrates the unique cultural and religious heritage related to each nation.

Currently, learning institutes provide more information about industry needs, hiring processes and basic human resources development issues by interacting with business professionals. Every day activity in learning and education should have industry, business and company background information, including career opportunities and job searching skills. The latter should cover entry level job requirements, resume writing, interview skills and business specific information. By understanding both job opportunities and desirable skills for entry level positions, educators can better relate student learning to career choices.

The aim of this first stage of the study is to research English human resources approaches and strategies designed to improve workforce skills and best practice. Any conclusions reached will be drawn into the second part of the study, which will build on recommended ideas to be implemented in Egypt.

## **1 2 THE BASIS OF THE RESEARCHER'S INTEREST**

The researcher is interested in the area of research because of many reasons. First, the researcher's work experience in adults' education and human resources reaches up to 15 years. The experience was gained by both practical and academic means. The practical one was gained by the work experience in Egypt and the Middle East while the academic one was acquired during studying the master degree in HRM in Manchester University 2000/2001. Second, the researcher chose the research area because of knowledge experience of the North East gained by the visit to North East during the conference entitled "The Education and Its Role in Regeneration in 2001". As a result, the researcher became familiar with the government strategy to improve the North East. Third, the researcher preferred to work in the social care and early years' sector because of its work experience and background gained in this sector



internationally with the Red Cross. Therefore, the researcher will be more understanding of the expressions in this field more than in other areas.

### **1.3 THE PURPOSE OF THE UK CASE STUDY**

This dual focus of learning is both beneficial for the individual and good for the society in general. As mentioned in the UK government green paper *The Learning Age*:

“Learning helps create and sustain our culture. It helps all of us to improve our chances of getting job... it increases our earning power, helps older people to stay healthy and active, strengthens families and the wider community and encourages independence... it helps(businesses) to be more successful by adding value and keeping them up-to date. It develops the intellectual capital that is now at the centre of a nation’s competitive strength. It provides the tools to manage industrial and technological change, and helps generate ideas, research and innovation... it is essential for a strong community. In offering a way out of dependency and low expectation... we must bridge the ‘learning divide’... which blights so many communities and widens income inequality. The results are seen in the second and third generation of the same family being unemployed, and in the potential talent of young people wasted in a vicious circle of under-achievement, self-depreciation and petty crime. Learning can overcome this by building self-confidence and independence.” (Excerpts taken from the internet version of the DEE Green Paper, 1998a).

Therefore, the UK has been chosen by the researcher as a country for research study project since it has a good experience in adult learning and workforce skills improvement. This will lead to recommendations drawn from the first part of the research in North East of England.

### **1.4 FOCUS OF THE STUDY**

This study focuses on adult learning and is divided into 2 parts. In the first part, a research will be conducted in the Tyne and Wear area of North East England. The second part will be related to Egypt. It will present the problems facing the workforce in Egypt, and will consider the situation in relation to economic reform



and vocational training reform. Based on the findings, recommended ideas will be developed to help in skills and economic reform in Egypt as a result of the research in England.

In order to conduct a research, the researcher uses a variety of techniques. These techniques fall into two categories: qualitative and quantitative methodologies. This research will focus on the qualitative technique. It will cover the qualifications and skills of the North East of England workforce and how the UK government and its partners work by using different learning approaches and sources to improve the skills as one of the main objectives of the North East Regional Economic Strategy. The researcher selected 3 learning approaches. These approaches are basic skills, work based learning and e-learning, which will cover the first part of the research. First, the basic skills approach stresses that literacy and numeric skills are essential skills, without which the learner will face barriers and obstacles in his learning route. Therefore, the improvement of basic skills is one of the priorities for both English and Egyptian strategies and companies to overcome the problem with taskforce skills. The Work based learning approach encourages on-job and off-job training as an effective way of improving the skills for the current workforce. Third, the e-learning approach is a recent development which allows distance learning. This closes the gap between learning and learning opportunities, reduces the costs of learning and reaches high number of learners.

As a result to this research, this thesis will examine different approaches of learning and presents the research case study field work in a series starting from national, regional and local views. In addition, this thesis will present recommendations for the research in the first part of in Tyne and Wear and best practices cases studies in the North East of England.

## **1.5 THE RESEARCH APPROACH**

The first part of the research approach in England is qualitative. It aims at studying the role of learning (Education) to build the workforce skills in North East of England that led to economic development. The first part of research should answer the question:



How do the Government Department and social partners work together to improve skills and vocational education and training in Tyne and Wear in North-East England by using learning to build an adaptable and highly skilled workforce?

This thesis will conduct a research on the learning approaches for the workforce skills improvement in Tyne and Wear in North East of England. The second part of the research is based on the desk research and literature review of the documents published about Egypt.

## **1.6 THE THESIS STRUCTURE**

This thesis contains 8 main chapters divided into 2 parts. Chapters 2 to 8 present the case study of the research and field work conducted in Tyne and Wear in England. Chapter 2 presents the literature review, which consists in three main parts of the general view of learning and adults training, learning and its role in economic development and improving the adult skills by different learning approaches and programmes. Chapter 3 reports on the research methodology for the study which in summary methodology is qualitative methods for the first part of the study, conducted in England.

Chapter 4 outlines the national view perspective of England starting with the Vocational Education Training (VET) since 60s until the birth of different bodies such as TEC and LSC in turn in 90s and 2000s. The national skills strategy that will deliver the government objectives for skills improvement is also presented and, finally, the overview of different national department that sets the strategy and established different bodies to implement its strategies. Chapter 5 contains different information on the regional level starting with an overview of the North East region overview. As well as this chapter shows the vision and objectives of each organisation and its partners on the regional level for the North East region. It will also examine the different strategies in the North East for workforce development and skills improvement. Chapter 6 gives an overview of the case study of the research field work prospective gained from research interviews, publications and secondary resources. It will also present the target groups of learners, followed with learning needs and issues in Tyne and Wear. Sector skills needs be examined in the

next section, along with the LSC priorities and how different providers and local partners are working to identify the learning needs in Tyne and Wear. Finally this chapter will present the provider for learning in Tyne and Wear. Chapter 7 works to complete the picture of previous chapters about the case study of the research field work and it gives an overview of the three different approaches of learning in Tyne and Wear which are Basic Skills, E-Learning and Work Based Learning. Also, it presents the implementation process, findings and best practice in each learning approach. Chapter 8 draws on the basis of the research which has been conducted in England to examine the barriers and motivation for learning opportunities in Tyne and Wear. It will also examine the evaluation and the strengths and weakness points in each learning approach. It will conclude the first part of the study (the research in England). Chapter 9 which is the second part of the study that will illustrate and explain the situation in Egypt and introduces recommended ideas to be implemented in Egypt drawn from the research learning lessons on the learning approaches in the North East of England. The problem facing Egypt and how the economic and education reform strategy is working to help in overcoming these problems will also be introduced. The recommended ideas that will be presented in this chapter will be mainly targeted towards the improvement of the workforce skills and qualifications in Egypt. Finally, Chapter 10 will be the conclusion to the study.



# **CHAPTER 2**

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

In this chapter some perspectives relevant to the research questions will be identified and considered within the academic literature. This chapter will present the literature review in three main divisions. These divisions are, firstly the general view of learning which examines the meaning and definitions of learning, lifelong learning, adult learning, barriers and motivation for learning, learning organisations and learning society. Secondly, learning and its role in economic development, which illustrates the meaning of Human Resources Development (HRD), how people develop and improve their knowledge and skills on an individual and organisational level. Thirdly, improving adult skills by different learning approaches and programmes, which explains the two main steps of designing learning and training approaches and programmes and the three learning approaches of the research study chosen for research in the North East of England.

### **2.1 GENERAL VIEW OF LEARNING AND ADULT TRAINING**

#### **2.1.1 Adult Learning:**

Humans begin learning at birth and generally continue this process throughout life, but how much is learned and the value of that knowledge varies greatly from one individual to the next (Sheppard, 2002). Historically, the perception of adult learning and its value has varied greatly among individuals and groups. In the past, many people considered formal education and learning beyond age fifty of little value to society given the limited life span to use such knowledge. Other critics of adult learning may have cited various reasons such as illness, genetic longevity, environment, ethnic differences, and individual habits as limiting the career and thus restricting the need for learning. Many of these attitudes were linked to a study by Moody (as cited in Lowy and O'Connor, 1986) suggesting that older adults perceive learning from the point of view of approximately how much time is left to live? Although never exact, this perspective of time affects and influences the educational goals of the older adult.



Clark and Caffarella (1999) explain that adult learning can be defined in numerous ways, but that a widely accepted definition refers to those learners as having completed mandatory public schooling, usually around age eighteen. While that may be a common convention among educational theorists, there are various definitions in use and this manuscript will refer to the adult learner as (at a minimum) having finished mandatory schooling in addition to having gained experience in the workforce prior to engaging in additional education. Consequently, the focus here is on the adult that has had life experiences and has often been referred to as a non-traditional student in the traditional education system. The age range for this type of student is extremely wide and, for the most part, includes adults over age 20.

### **2.1.2 Psychological Self-Image of the Adult Learner**

Havinghurst (as cited in Knowles, 1980) asserts that people do not simply pass into adulthood and then just coast along to old age. He claims that adulthood has transition points and developmental periods as complete as that of childhood. Other theorists such as Erikson and Levinson also present stage or phase theories sometimes linked to life events and transitions that adults encounter and pass through (Clark and Caffarella, 1999). Kohlberg's (as cited in Merriam and Caffarella, 1991) 1973 theory of moral development promotes three stages that individuals pass through from youth to adulthood in relation to moral and ethical judgments influenced by the relationship of the individual to his or her social setting. All of these theorists tend to break development into various stages and recognise that although adults do not always fit neatly into each of these categories, by and large each phase has its own challenges and adjustments that could be viewed as developmental.

Regardless of which theory is most correct, Knowles (1980) argues for a dramatic change to self-image when one defines him or herself as an adult. The switch is away from being a full-time learner to one that takes on other responsibilities and thus creates more of a self-directed personality. People reaching adulthood do not just inherit a chronological progression of ageing but also often include taking an attitude that is more self-directed along with a need for others to view them as such.

Much of the self-directed image of the adult is mirrored in how they view work. The working role of many people often provides a significant and meaningful factor in



self-identification. The old notion of “we are what we do” is an apt description of how a person may view his/her own self-image. While work itself is usually an important factor, another factor appears to be the differences in occupations among individuals. Many times lives outside of work are strongly influenced if not dictated by occupational activities (Long, 1972).

Another aspect of work that appears to influence the adult’s perspective to learning has to do with job dissatisfaction. Rapid changes in technology and other socioeconomic factors may influence a great number of individuals to change occupations over the course of their working lives. The need to update or acquire new skills for vocational reasons may be significant for a growing number of adults (ibid).

### **2.1.3 Learning Expectations of the Adult**

The notion of the adult learner as being self-directed is generally accepted in the literature on adult learning. Self-directed learning means that the learner tends to be systematic yet independent while not focusing exclusively on the instructor or the classroom (Merriam, 2001). Additionally, it means that as individuals mature, they may choose the precise means by which to learn certain subject matter and may become selective as to which content they learn. Self-regulation is a similar but not exact term used for traditional students in an educational setting where the student monitors the learning progress independently. Likewise, the self-directed learner is able to monitor learning in the classroom but can take that a step further to learning experiences outside of the traditional classroom as well (ibid).

Being self-directed has an important influence upon expectations of the adult learner, which is one of the major differences between adults and children in the learning environment. Draves (1984) notes that adults are often eager to learn and approach learning from a mentality of readiness, problem orientation, and time perspective. All of these factors contribute to an internal motivation to learn that is sometimes missing in children.

Learner readiness is evident of a true learning mentality and can stem from the awareness that there is a need to learn. Reasons for learning range from specific



career objectives to factors such as personal growth and accomplishment (Knowles 1989). Long points out that participation by adults in formal education is multifaceted and that realistically it is difficult to classify adult learners into one category without asking them personally about their education. Regardless of the need to learn, it is a very real need to the learner and thus results in readiness to learn (Long 1983).

Aslanian and Brickell (1980) noted that 83% of adult learners describe “some past, present, or future change in their lives as reasons to learn.” These learners encounter change that requires learning in order to make the transition successful. Of this group, the big majority (56%) named career changes as the reason.

Adult learners are more problem-centred and want to make learning apply to their lives. They view learning as most desirable when it is relevant and can be used currently rather than as something to be accessed in the distant future. Thus, they might be more interested in narrow issues than broad philosophical principles. Related to this issue is that adults also view learning from a different time perspective than children. As learners get older, time becomes more limited and, in many ways, more precious (Draves, 1984). Placing a higher value on time seems logical when considering the ageing process that adults are experiencing coupled with awareness that they cannot recover lost time. In short, this same concept holds true for adult learners who do not want to waste valuable time in educational pursuits that they view as pointless (ibid).

Many researchers who argue that adults learn in a variety of ways agree that their primary learning style is visual or interactive (James and Galbraith, 1984). Oral and print media receive low to middle rankings for adult learning preference (ibid).

Also, most adults seek out learning experiences in order to cope with specific life-changing events, and they are certain to engage activity in any learning that promises to help. The theory of andragogy maintains that adults want to participate in activity in the assessment of their own needs and in planning their own learning activities. Adults also want to participate in the establishment of the goals and objectives of their learning, as well as in the evaluation of their learning (Long 1983).



In addition, the more time that passes before adult learners can apply training, the less impact the training appears to have on actual job performance. This is especially true when a person is attempting to adjust to new responsibilities that come with promotion or transfer. Therefore, timely training is extremely important to adult learners. Usual HRD(Human Resource Development) practices often contradict these assumptions. Many learning specialists rely on lectures or reading for the delivery of information; neither one is the most appropriate or preferred learning styles for adults. Many, if not all training programs take place because the organisation deems them necessary or important - not because the needs of their employees demand them. This is contrary to andragogy theory's basic assumption that adult learners want to participate actively in their own learning process and routes (ibid).

To conclude what has been discussed above, existing literature supports the idea that adults are very capable of learning well, which is a good reason to accept lifelong learning as more than just a pleasant mantra. Likewise, it seems beneficial for faculties in the higher educational setting to be aware of differences between the older learner and the traditional college age student. The differences are somewhat subtle, so it will take effort on the part of the instructor to understand and implement strategies appropriate to the nuances of the adult learner. Even though it takes time and energy to explore for the optimal environment and teaching methodology, the payoff could be well worth the effort if the result is an enjoyable and satisfying learning experience for the student. While it may be true that adults will learn in spite of the professor's shortcomings, faculty that choose to ignore learner differences run the inherent risk of mediocrity in their teaching.

#### **2.1.4 What is the meaning of learning?**

Learning can be defined formally as the act, process, or experience of gaining knowledge or skills. In contrast, memory can define the capacity of storing, retrieving, and acting on that knowledge. Learning helps learners to move from novices to experts and allows learners to gain new knowledge and abilities ( Marriam and Caffarella 1999).

Learning strengthens the brain by building new pathways and increasing connections that can be relied on when learners want to learn more. Definitions that are more



complex add words such as comprehension and mastery through experience or study (Smith 1990). Physiologically, learning is the formation of cell assemblies and phase sequences. Children learn by building these assemblies and sequences. Adults spend more time making new arrangements than forming new sequences. Our experience and background allow us to learn new concepts (ibid). At the neurological level, any established knowledge (from experience and background) appears to be made up of exceedingly intricate arrangements of cell materials, electrical charges, and chemical elements. Learning requires energy; re-learning and un-learning requires even more. We must access higher brain functions to generate the much-needed energy and unbind the old (Marriam and Caffarella 1999).

Remarkably, people can learn from the moment of birth. Learning can and should be a lifelong process. Learning should not be defined by what happened early in life, only at school (Rogers 1977). We constantly make sense of our experiences and consistently search for meaning. In essence, we continue to learn. Adult learning is about change, change in attitude, change in knowledge, change in behaviour, change in a skill, change in how we think about things.

### **2.1.5 Lifelong learning**

The learning process is one of many processes integrated into people's lives (Longworth and Davies 1998). The term lifelong learning has been defined by Longworth and Davies (1998,p 21) as:

"The development of Human potential through a continuously supportive process which stimulates and empowers individuals to acquire all the knowledge, values, skills and understanding they will require throughout their lifetimes and to apply them with confidence, creativity and enjoyment in all roles, circumstances, and environments"

The concept of lifelong learning is surrounded by competing myths or visions that represent very different perspectives about the purposes and goals of education. "As is the case of other desirable social objectives, there is often a perceived gap between the ideal and the reality, the theory and the practice, the promise and the performance" (Giffin 1998, p.22).



As pointed out by Martin 2000, the idea that learning takes place throughout life has been espoused and supported by the adult education field. The European Union declared 1996 as the European Year of Lifelong Learning which has produced a flood of policy documents by government agencies in the United Kingdom and United States (Oliver 1999). The vision drawn in the documents is of a world transformed by a global economy and technological change, increasing access to information and altering traditional forms of knowledge production (Hake 1999). Individuals, organisations, and nations must adapt flexibly and continuously in order to compete and survive. The key to survival is lifelong learning, the foundation of learning organisations, a learning society, a learning culture (Fryer et al.1999).

#### **2.1.6 Learning organisation:**

Cullen (1999) cited the current popularity of the concept of learning organisation from Peter Senge and his five disciplines characterising of learning organisation (personal mastery, shared vision, team learning, and systems thinking) (Senge 1990). The learning organisation can be described as "an organisational culture in which individual development is a priority, outmoded and erroneous ways of thinking are actively identified and corrected, and the purpose and vision of the organisation are clearly understood and supported by all its members. Within this framework, the application of systems thinking enables people to see how the organisation really works; to form a plan; and to work together openly, in teams, to achieve that plan" (Worrell 1995, p.352). That characterisation of the learning organisation has powerful intuitive appeal and promise (Fenwick 1995).

However, the learning organisation has proved difficult to define. Ojala (1995) found five different types of definitions, philosophical, mechanistic, educational, adaptive, and organic, and characterises them all as "elusive" (p.175). As Senge himself recently stated in (Abernathy 1999, p. 40), "No one understands what a learning organisation is". Indeed, Smith and Tosey (1999) call the learning organisation concept more rhetorical than actual, more a concept to focus aspiration than some objective state. Such a rhetorical focus on laudable outcomes without information on the process and inputs necessary to attain those outcomes often leaves organisation without a complete understanding of the concept (Reynolds and Ablett 1998)



Even at the conceptual level, there is some disagreement about the premises on which the learning organisation is based. Consider, at the most fundamental level, two very different conceptions of organisational learning - learning in organisations and learning by organisations, both arising from the assertion that all learning takes place inside individual human heads (Popper and Lipshitz 2000). Learning in organisation poses the puzzle of how the learning of individuals becomes organisational: learning by organisation poses the different puzzle of how learning can take place outside individual human heads.

Harris (2000) raises questions about the power of organisational learning to fundamentally transform people and the place where they work. Likewise, "social units can learn from experience, but they do not always do so even when individuals learn on behalf of the system" (Marsick, Bitterman, and Van der Veen 2000, p.2). Although learning is a given (people learn things all the time), it is not a given that organisations can create their future by learning (Webber 2000). Another reservation in the concept of a learning organisation concerns whether or not it can be measured (Smith and Tosey 2000). Assessing progress, measuring learning activity, and linking learning to a return on investment all depend on measuring learning itself, and the assessment of learning is problematic. Learning is a construct, not an activity, hence not inherently observable; but what observable, measurable behaviours or qualities can serve as proxies for learning? Measuring formal learning activities is quite different from measuring the change in performance that is the purpose of learning, and the essence of the learning organisation.

In the United Kingdom, for example, there is an increasing policy focus on learning. The government has published a Green paper on lifelong learning (DfEE 1998), which states:

"we are in a new age. Familiar certainties and old ways of doing things are disappearing. Jobs are changing and with them the skills needed for the world of tomorrow... Learning is the key to prosperity- for each of us as individuals, as well as for the nation as a whole... The fostering of an enquiring mind and the love of learning are essential for our future success... to achieve stable and sustainable growth. We will need a well- educated, well- equipped and adaptable workforce. To cope with rapid change we must ensure that people can return to learning throughout



their lives. We cannot rely on a small elite: we will need the creativity, enterprise and scholarship of all our people. (Excerpts taken from the internet version of the DFEE Green Paper, 1998a, Introduction, section 1)

Thus, a learning-oriented organisation seeks to become a learning organisation, and attempts to achieve this by supporting individual lifelong learning, whether formal or informal, and by encouraging the sharing of this learning in order that all members of the organisation might learn and change and improve performance. As it has been stated by Tjepkema and Scheerens (1998), a learning-oriented organisation can be described as: 'an organisation which, with the aim of becoming a 'learning organisation', creates opportunities for informal employee learning, both 'on the job' and 'off the job' and stimulates employees not only to attain new knowledge and skills, but also to acquire skills in the field of learning and problem solving and thus develop their capacity for future learning, or to learning to learn' (Tjepkema and Scheerens 1998).

Longworth (1999) pointed out indicators of a learning organisation as follows:

- A learning organisation can be a company, a professional association, a university, a school, a city, a nation or any group of people, large or small, with a need and a desire to improve performance through learning; its learning invests in its own future through the education and training of its entire people.
- A learning organisation creates opportunities for, and encourages, all its people in all its functions to fulfil their human potential: as employees, members, professional or students of the organisation; as ambassadors of the organisation to its customers, clients, audiences and suppliers; as citizens of the wider society in which the organisation exists; and as human beings with the need to realise their own capabilities
- A learning organisation shares its vision of tomorrow with its people and stimulates them to challenge it, to change it and to contribute to it. Also it integrates work and learning and inspires all its people to seek quality, excellence and continuous improvement in both. In addition to that it mobilises all its people (human talent) by putting the emphasis on 'learning' and planning its education and training activities accordingly and empowers all its people to broaden their horizons in harmony with their own preferred learning styles.



- A learning organisation applies up-to-date open and distance delivery technologies appropriately to create broader and more varied learning opportunity, it also responds proactively to the wider needs of the environment and the society in which it operates, and encourages its people to do likewise. Furthermore, a learning organisation learns and relearns constantly in order to remain innovative, inventive, invigorating and in business.

### **2.1.7 Learning society**

Literature reveals that, one of the most effective ways to create a learning society is first to create learning communities - cities, towns, villages or regions which will lead to coherence and integrate their economic, political, educational and environmental structures toward developing the talents and human potential of all their citizens. Therefore the development of guidelines by which learning communities can be established and sustained must be one of the major posts on which lifelong learning progress can be built. (Longworth and Davies 1998).

There are different ways to build learning communities, Field and Leicester (2000) suggest that one of the most important developments is that universities in many places have established, or are starting to try to set up, learning communities or learning cities that integrate educational institutions, high technology industry, residential areas, commercial and retail services, accommodation and recreational facilities. University and state governments have also established community-based Learning Centres to improve access to education and training in communities (ibid). These centres are located in universities, council buildings, schools, government offices, colleges and industrial sites of all kinds. This means that, as regards increasing the range of opportunities open to individuals and groups with various interests, the choices available to learners beyond school age have proliferated with the establishment of learning centres, learning cities, improved distance education provision and increase on-line access to educational services (Field and Leicester 2000).

European Round Table of Industrialists (ERT) offers the first five principles for a learning society from the following characteristics: learning is accepted as a continuing activity throughout life and learners take responsibility for their own



progress; learning is seen as creative, rewarding and enjoyable; learning is outward looking, mind opening and promotes tolerance, respect and understanding of other cultures, creeds, races and traditions; and learning is a partnership between students, parents, teachers, employers and the community, who all work together to improve performance (Cochinaux and De Woot 1995)

In addition, the European Lifelong Learning Initiative (ELLI) add five more as been mentioned in Cochinaux and De Woot book, listed as follows: assessment confirms progress rather than brands failure; capability, personal and shared values and team working are recognised equally with the pursuit of knowledge; everyone accepts some responsibility for the learning of others; men, women, the disabled and minority groups have equal access to learning opportunities; and learning its frequently celebrated individually, in families, in the community and in the wider world (Cochinaux and De Woot 1995).

### **2.1.8 Barriers to learning**

Only a minority of adults take full advantage of the numerous structured learning opportunities on offer and a high proportion of potential learners never consider participating in formal education beyond the end of compulsory schooling. Therefore, the UK government is widening learning opportunities and encouraging people who are currently excluded from participation.

The following are the main barriers that may act to deter potential learners from taking up learning opportunities. Chapter 7 will illustrate the barriers the research study found in the research sample in the North East of England.

#### **2.1.8.1 Institutional barriers**

*Poor provision:* the provision of learning facilities may be inadequate to meet the general needs of learners in a geographical area. Even if general resources are sufficient, particular learners' needs may still not be met. For example, the course a learner wishes to follow may be oversubscribed; or there may not be resources available at the right level, in a suitable location or on the subject about which they wish to learn (Cullen et al 2000).



*Poor links:* even if suitable provision exists, learners may not be aware that this is the case. Learners are often not only unaware of the learning opportunities that exist, but also suffer from a lack of knowledge about where and how to find out about the range of facilities that may help them to meet their learning needs. At a strategic level, such problems may be exacerbated by the inflexibility of policy frameworks; a lack of integration with broader social agendas; uneven access; and inadequate funding. Policies may constrain people to narrow forms of education, when they would benefit from participating in wider informal learning opportunities (Neale 1983).

*Inappropriate types of learning:* a lack of information may mean that learners embark on inappropriate learning that is not at the right level or does not cover the content required to meet their needs. In addition, structured learning opportunities often do not meet the needs or expectations of learners because they are too inflexible or because the approach taken is too stressful and does not provide sufficient opportunities for fun or personal growth. However, flexible styles of learning are sometimes associated with vocational needs and lower achievers, leaving learners to form the impression that it is only appropriate for students with specific needs (Hull 2000).

#### 2.1.8.2 Psychological barriers

It has been argued that, “participants often do not perceive themselves to be ‘learning’ particularly when it takes place in an unstructured setting” (Cullen et al 2000). People may label themselves or be labelled by others as non-learners if they do not take part in official, organised education and training. Among some learners, and even learning providers, there may be mistrust of any forms of learning that deviate from traditional, formal education. Where there is evidence of cynicism about the value of informal learning, teachers and learners may be less disposed to take risks and be innovative. Allied to this is the danger that certain types of learning could be relegated to margins and “anything outside the learning market of policy proposals will no longer be valued” (Ecclestone 1999).

*Lack of confidence:* perceived inadequacy about their ability in a particular subject or skills area or with regard to more general learning techniques may make people



nervous about commencing a learning process. This is often especially true for those who are returning to learning after an absence of some years. Those without previous qualifications or recent learning experience may fear they will struggle. This is often a particular worry for individuals with poor basic literacy or numeracy skills. In 1999, the Moser Report found that seven million British adults, one in five of the population, were functionally illiterate (Hull 2000). Interviewees in Islington (Neale 1983) reported that a lack of training in study skills or other basic skills during their compulsory schooling (often as a result of leaving school at an early age) made them reluctant to return to studying. Members of ethnic minority groups and people who had been economically inactive are particularly lacking in confidence according to Hull (2000). A lack of previous experience with new technology may be a further deterrent, especially for older learners. Hull (2000) found that a learner's first experience of computer use was vital in establishing their confidence and this is equally true for other types of learning activity.

*Lack of motivation:* in order to widen participation, learning providers need to overcome the barriers that exist not only when people make an initial decision to undertake some form of learning, but also when they decide whether to continue learning. Factors influencing a decision to give up once a learning experience has commenced include: limited time, pressures at work, family or domestic pressure and health problems. Helsall's study of young people (1998) found that drop out and failure rates on post-16 courses were related to unsuitable courses; low prior attainment; boredom with the subject matter; dislike of teaching methods; lack of success; and personal factors such as domestic and financial pressures.

*Mistrust of learning provider:* unnecessarily complicated or bureaucratic systems may be off-putting, especially for individuals who are already wary of formal learning providers. Such barriers may lead people to think that learning providers have nothing to offer them as individuals. Some potential learners view learning as an activity associated with work or school and do not recognise the leisure and social opportunities offered through learning. Employment is by no means the only reason for undertaking learning. While workplaces often provides resources, opportunities and motivation for learning, social and intellectual reasons for learning may be more important for many adults (Hull 2000).



### 2.1.8.3 Personal barriers

*Poor Schooling:* some potential learners may be deterred from taking up learning opportunities by unhappy memories of school. This may account for an individual's reluctance to be associated with traditional learning institutions. They may hold negative attitudes towards particular subjects; certain styles of learning; or towards teachers and lecturers or other authority figures (Dench and Regan 2000).

*Health:* health issues may be significant barriers to learning, particularly if they mean that a learner's mobility is impaired. However, Dench and Regan (2000) reported that people who were disabled or suffered from poor health reported positive benefits when they did take part in learning activities.

*Finance:* being low paid, retired or unemployed, or the risk of losing benefits can all act to deter potential learners. The costs of undertaking learning, including travel costs, childcare and course fees can be off-putting to poorer individuals and communities (ibid).

*Time:* work commitments, family obligations and other time constraints may mean that it is not possible for learners to attend a class or commit to other forms of study on a regular basis. For such learners, open and informal learning methods are particularly important (Hull 2000).

*Lack of awareness:* a difficulty often experienced by less experienced learners is a lack of awareness of the type of support they require. While some potential learners are unaware that they need any help, others may be uncertain what steps they should take to fulfil their ambitions, or how or where to get help. This was demonstrated by the fact that people interviewed in Islington (Neale 1983) frequently asked interviewers for advice on how to fulfil their unmet learning needs.

*Lack of opportunities to apply skills:* if learners have no opportunities to practise and apply the skills and knowledge developed through learning, they not only risk losing the skills they have gained, but may not be motivated to continue to learn (ibid).



#### 2.1.8.4 Social barriers

*Gender:* gender can have an impact on an individual's learning style and the type of learning support he or she requires. For example, Hull (2000) found that men and women require different styles of support in computer interactions because women generally perform better in the presence of female audience than they do alone or in presence of a male audience. Women may experience particular barriers to learning due to social conditioning or practical constraints, such as childcare responsibilities. Neale (1983) noted that, in some instances, women might lack the confidence to take up learning opportunities, especially if their family are not supportive of their undertaking learning activities. Certain jobs, like those in nursing or cleaning are usually carried out by women, while other jobs, like those in engineering or construction, are usually carried out by men, which can be a barrier.

*Age:* although the feeling that learning is irrelevant may occur to individuals at any life stage, it is particularly common amongst older people. Older people themselves, or their friends and relatives, may hold negative attitudes, imagining that learning is an activity aimed solely at younger people rather than viewing it as a lifelong process. Elderly people may feel that they have already undertaken ample learning while at school and work. In addition, older people may also experience more practical difficulties. For instance, they may be affected by illness and a lack of mobility (Neale 1983).

*Social Class:* people may be reluctant to take up learning opportunities they feel are not intended for people of their social class (ibid).

*Cultural Values and Attitudes:* widening participation may be affected by the fact that, within certain cultural boundaries and group values, attitudes and practices create conditions that facilitate the participation of some groups while fostering non-participation practices amongst others. Negative attitudes to learning among employers, friends or family can also act as barriers to learning (Neale 1983).

A number of studies, for example Machin and Vignoles (2001) and the Performance and Innovation Unit (2001), highlight a range of barriers which reduce employer and



employee participation in work based learning. It is convenient to divide these up into barriers confronted by employers and employees.

*Barriers for Employers:* The main factors lowering employer investment in work based learning include the following:

- unlike other forms of investment, human capital does not provide collateral for loans and so is more difficult to finance
- it is difficult to secure reliable information on the financial returns from investing in skills
- employers fear that they will not capture the returns on work based learning because of the risk of their unskilled employees being poached or simply moving on
- large numbers of adults in work have low basic educational achievement which can be a difficult foundation upon which to build work based learning.

NFER (2000) research found that barriers to the take-up of training in SME's relate to their business culture and operating characteristics. Due to short-term business imperatives and slim profit margins, SME's tend to provide only in-house training for immediate requirements. Additionally, many do not have the human resource management staff to introduce and manage work based learning.

*Employers' resistance:* A number of studies have identified the reasons for employer resistance to work-based learning, as has been presented by Machin and Vignoles (2001):

- some jobs have skill levels which are too low to justify accreditation
- progression to Level 3<sup>1</sup> involves increased costs to the employer as training is more highly structured with a more substantial off-the-job element (Hogarth *et al.*, 1998)
- the *Skills Needs in Britain* survey (DfEE, 1999a) found dissatisfaction resulted mainly from a feeling that N/SVQs fail to cover all of the skills which the firm requires, and are 'too bureaucratic' with too much paperwork and overly technical language

---

<sup>1</sup> More explanation related to Level 3 will be later

- the literature indicates that small firms need to be encouraged and assisted to a greater extent to increase the work based learning they carry out which is formal and accredited. This is because they experience the above barriers more forcefully due to slimmer profit margins and the absence of dedicated human resource managers.

*Barriers for Employees:* These barriers have been introduced by Machin and Vignoles (2001):

- low motivation resulting from a perception of limited benefits
- patchy information and guidance on the value and appropriateness of learning
- practical barriers such as transport and childcare where some of the learning is off the job and outside of normal working hours
- perceived differences in the value of vocational and academic training, with the vocational route seen as 'second best' by many
- employers simply failing to offer them the opportunity to participate in work based learning, particularly if they are in lower skilled occupational areas.

### **2.1.9 Motivation for learning**

Adults may choose to take up learning activities for a variety of reasons. Motives for learning may include: hobbies, short term projects (often of a practical nature), a wish to improve general education, gaining qualifications, improving work-related competencies, concern for community or civic issues, or the desire to follow a topic of interest. Some people may wish to compensate for an apparent lack in their initial education; others may be interested in re-education or retraining to update obsolete knowledge or skills. The latter is becoming increasingly important as the pressure to update and retrain means that learning is becoming virtually compulsory in some respects. However, not all adults have vocational motives for undertaking learning. Social or community purposes are more important for many; these include: self-realisation; help in solving social problems; developing personal and social skills; combating social ills; or religious motives.

Dench and Regan (2000) found that the most important reasons for learning were intellectual: keeping the brain active and the challenge of learning new things.



However, learners also identified personal reasons for learning, for example: to gain qualifications, for personal satisfaction, to do something with their spare time, or to change life direction. For other learners, instrumental reasons were more important; these might be learning for work, to help the family, or for voluntary or community purposes. For such learners work-related reasons assumed less importance (Hein 1991).

Allred and Allred (2000:63) found that, “learning aims were, in many cases, quite complex, and developed during the learning experience”. Reasons for commencing a learning activity as been mentioned by Allred and Allred in 2000 are included:

- to gain qualifications
- to develop skills for employment
- to test their motivation or ability to learn subject
- to assist another member of the learner’s family
- to keep alert.

It is generally acknowledged that motivation is a key component in learning (Hein 1991). Knowles (1990) identified the strongest motivators to learn as self-esteem, greater job satisfaction and improved quality of life. According to Russell (1994), people are intrinsically motivated or programmed to attempt to make sense of things. In Neale’s study 81% of respondents reported having current learning aspirations and 40% reflected on previous aspirations to learn (Neale 1983: 7). The likelihood of future learning is strongly related to involvement in past learning activities (Hooper-Greenhill & Moussouri 2001).

Adults engage in continual education for various reasons. The unique motivations help them stay focused and stick with a topic until they solve the current problem and gather enough information to complete their current task (Ellis King 1986). What influences motivation?

*Culture*: every ethnic group has stated and implied values regarding learning in the academic or traditional sense. These values are transmitted through such avenues as the dominant religion, the myths and folklore of the culture, political legislation for education, the status and pay of teachers, and the expectations of parents. Those societies which make the education of children the highest of economic and social



priorities greatly enhance the development of motivation to learn among their younger members (Knowles 1990).

*The Family:* studies of well-motivated, successful students reveal that they come from effective families. Among the more salient characteristics of these families are: a feeling of control over their lives; a view of hard work as a key to success; high expectations for children; a view of the family as a mutual support system; frequent contact with teachers; and an emphasis on spiritual growth. Such habits and values remain true for single- and two-parent households and for families with working and non-working mothers (Sargant 2000).

*School:* effective teachers frequently share parallel traits with effective families. They are enthusiastic about students learning their subject, and students feel safe with them and know that with effort they can learn and complete assignments. They know that these teachers will not reject them because their grades and scores are less than those of someone else (Knowles 1990).

*Learners:* learners are not passive. There is a give and take between the learners and their families, teachers, and cultural institutions. As in a conversation, learners actively influence what teachers or parents will do next and are influenced by their responses. Interest in a particular subject motivates some people to learn. Learners may be targeted through the provision of learning opportunities in popular subjects such as family history or ICT. In *The Learning Divide Revisited* (Sargant 2001), foreign languages, creative arts and other leisure subjects were most frequently studied by retired people. Sargant (2000) also found that women were more likely to have personal or educational reasons for wishing to learn, while men more frequently cited work-related motives. Wanting to help their children to learn or to care for them generally is a fairly common incentive for learning amongst mothers. Dale (1979) found that the most common anticipated application for learning was the use or application of knowledge and skill; curiosity and desire to possess knowledge for its own sake were considerably less common. For this reason, popular learning topics included: home and family; hobbies and sport; work and business and community. The encouragement of family or friends can motivate people to start and, even more importantly, to continue learning. This occurs, for example, when they see that the



skills that they have developed are valued within their social circle. In Neale's survey, it was reported that:

“the overriding factor that emerges from this survey is the value of personal contacts in motivating adults both to take up and sustain learning activities and helping to forge links to learning” (Neale 1983: 17).

## **2.2 LEARNING AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**

Learning and training for adults has a significant influence on economic growth by improving the skills for individuals and employees that will lead to an increase in skills available on the local labour market. The second part of this chapter will discuss and examine the four main elements of: learning and economic development, the meaning of human resources development, human resources development and learning, and people knowledge and skills development.

### **2.2.1 Learning and economic development**

Many people accept new career assignments and challenges without fully understanding the duties required in the new role. In fact, people often expect to develop the knowledge and skills required for the job as they participate in the daily activities. This sometimes results in mistakes and loss of productivity and efficiency. This, of course, reflects upon the image and reputation of a field and its practitioners and will with time have an effect on the economic level of the workforce capacity (Gilley, J and Eggland, S 1990).

The influence of the State's policy and its resulting initiatives are based on a predominantly economic rationale. The argument has been raised by Coffield (1997), that globalisation and technological change are permanent and widespread, and they suggest that lack of high-level skills and inadequate education and training system put the economic competitiveness of nations at risk. Education and economic reforms require flexible, autonomous workers, who make human capital the most important resource in learning organisations. Continuous developing and upgrading of skills is viewed as an investment in human resources capital (Coffield 1997) lifelong skill development is considered primarily an individual responsibility. The



role of the government in partnership with employers is to provide access to learning opportunities among which individuals are free to choose (ibid).

However, the human resources capital/ economic perspective has been the subject of intensive critique, in the United Kingdom and other nations as mentioned by (Coffield 1997 and Oliver 1999). The chief criticisms of the economic rational include the following:

- it turns education from public good to private commodity, reducing individuals to their worker, producer, consumer roles including consumers of educational services
- it shifts responsibility to the individual and ignores the socially constructed nature of learning
- it overemphasizes the instrumental and vocational purposes of learning to the exclusion of others
- it rewards primarily those learning activities that can show a visible and quick return (Oliver 1999)

Despite some examples to the contrary in some countries and industries, there is a gap between the demand for and supply of educated workers, between employers' claims for skill needs and their actual hiring practices (Coffield 1997). Most job growth since 1970 has been in the services sectors implication, these sectors are Business, Professional & Financial Services, Business Process Outsourcing and Call/Contact/Shared Service Centres, although jobs in high-tech areas and those requiring higher qualification are among the fastest growing, occupational growth rates should not be confused with the actual numbers of new jobs (Rothstein 1999). In other words, individuals are encouraged to improve their skills continuously, yet they may be competing for a limited number of high-skill jobs. The shortage of skilled workers is presented as the total explanation for a much more complex situation. A "let them eat skills" approach (Coffield 1997) suggests that workers are being required to adapt to the "inevitable" system without questioning whether the system can or should be changed.



An alternative to the human capital approach is a vision of lifelong learning based on social capital theory (Schuller 1998). In human capital theory, individuals make economically rational choices to build their "capital" by developing skills and accumulating educational qualifications; outcomes are measured in terms of income, productivity, and other economic indicators of success. In contrast, an individual's stock of social capital is built through a relationship based on trust and acceptance of mutual obligations, social values and norms encourage working for the common good, and outcomes are measured in terms of social well-being (ibid). In this view, lifelong learning is a public good with the goal of enriching individuals and society. Rather than work-long learning (Hunt 1999), which focuses on preparation for occupational goals, lifelong learning prepares individuals for a variety of life roles, including citizenship. However, strong social capital could actually hinder learning in close-knit societies where someone who acquires education qualifications risks separation from the community (Schuller 1998).

The economic myth (or story) is not intrinsically wrong - of course there is value in developing knowledgeable workers and a healthy economy (Hunt 1999; Schuller 1998). But it is a highly selective story that limits the purposes and goals of lifelong learning. Adding social capital to the narrative, as well as recognizing individual learning goals that may have neither economic nor social benefits.

The perspectives on adult learning vary according to the context or discipline in which one operates. Many of the policy documents published in recent years, e.g., The EU White Paper *"Teaching and Learning: Towards the Learning Society"*, takes a human capital approach to adult learning with the primary consideration being the development of a skilled workforce. Earlier policy documents from the OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development) and UNESCO (the United Nations' Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation) viewed adult education in terms of personal development and fulfilment and as part of a lifelong process.

Adult learning in the workforce is often viewed as a means of producing more efficient and effective workers. Community groups view adult learning as a transformational process that empowers people to participate fully in society and to



live healthier, happier lives. Whatever the context, the task of adult education practitioners is to create an environment conducive to adult learning.

### **2.2.2 What is Human Resources Development (HRD)?**

Human Resource Development (HRD) is the term used to describe an integrated and holistic, conscious and proactive approach to changing work-related knowledge and behaviour, using a range of learning strategies and techniques. The strategies and techniques referred to generally are intended to help individuals, groups and organisations realise their full potential (Matthews and Ell 2004).

Gilley and Eggland (1990) ask the question "what is human resource development?" Many people feel it is a question that is impossible to answer, given the complex nature of the practice of HRD. It is made even more difficult because the field is changing rapidly. A clear definition will provide a framework on which to base decisions regarding the role and competencies of practitioners as well as the activities that should be incorporated in HRD programs.

Another definition offered for HRD is: "organized learning activities arranged within an organization in order to improve performance and/or personal growth for the purpose of improving the job, the individual, and/or the organization" (Gilley and Eggland 1989: 5). HRD includes the areas of training and development, career development, and organization development.

When examining the term "development" two questions arise; first, what is meant by the development of people or Human Capital? Second, what type of development really occurs within an organisations and community? (Gilley 1989). The concept of development is related to Human and Social Capital and this relationship is pointed out by Mattewo (2004), which is further illustrated by the contrast with other established associated concepts of education, training and learning:

*Education:* conventionally seen as a highly structured exposure to instruction, the objective of which is to train mentally and morally

*Training:* a relatively systematic attempt to bring someone to a desired standard of efficiency by instruction and practice



*Learning*: acquiring knowledge of or skills in something by study, experience or being taught- a never ending process of personal unfolding.

### *Human capital*

The term “human capital” first appeared in 1961 in an *American Economic Review* article, “Investment in Human Capital”, by Nobel-Prize winning economist, Theodore W. Shultz. Economists have since added on much baggage to the concept but most agree that human capital comprises skills, experience, and knowledge. Some like Gary Becker add personality, appearance, reputation, and credentials to the mix. Still others, like management guru Richard Crawford, equate human capital with its owners, suggesting human capital consists of “skilled and educated people” (Putnam and Alone 2000).

Human Capital is defined by the OECD (1998: 9) as “the knowledge, skills and competences and other attributes embodied in individuals that are relevant to economic activity.” Another definition of Human Capital raised by Putnam and Alone (2000: 15) is that "The set of skills which an employee acquires on the job, through training and experience, and which increase that employee's value in the marketplace".

Human capital focuses on the economic behaviour of individuals, especially on the way their accumulation of knowledge and skills enable them to increase their productivity and their earnings – and in so doing to increase the productivity and wealth of the societies they live in. The underlying implication of a human capital perspective is that investment in knowledge and skills brings economic returns, individually and therefore collectively (Gilley and Egglund 1989).

### *Social Capital*

Social capital refers to the institutions, relationships, and norms that shape the quality and quantity of a society's social interactions. Social capital is not just the sum of the institutions which underpin a society – it is the glue that holds them together. (The World Bank 1999). Social capital consists of the stock of active connections among people: the trust, mutual understanding, and shared values and behaviours that bind



the members of human networks and communities and make cooperative action possible. (Cohen and Prusak 2001: 4)

Whereas physical capital refers to physical objects and human capital refers to the properties of individuals, social capital refers to connections among individuals – social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them. In that sense social capital is closely related to what some have called “civic virtue.” The difference is that “social capital” calls attention to the fact that civic virtue is most powerful when embedded in a sense network of reciprocal social relations. A society of many virtuous but isolated individuals is not necessarily rich in social capital. (Putnam 2000: 19).

Social capital is very important in development, as mentioned by Putnam (2000). First, social capital allows citizens to resolve collective problems more easily. People often might be better off if they cooperate, But each individual benefits more by shirking their responsibility. Social norms and the networks that enforce people provide such a mechanism. Second, social capital greases the wheels that allow communities to advance smoothly. Where people are trusting and trustworthy, and where they are subject to repeated interactions with fellow citizens, everyday business and social transactions are less costly. A third way in which social capital improves society is by widening our awareness of the many ways in which our fates are linked. People who have active and trusting connections to others – whether family members, friends, or fellow bowlers – develop or maintain character traits that are good for the rest of society. Joiners become more tolerant, less cynical, and more empathetic to the misfortunes of others. When people lack connection to others, they are unable to test the veracity of their own views, whether in the give or take of casual conversation or in more formal deliberation. Without such an opportunity, people are more likely to be swayed by their worse impulses.

The networks that constitute social capital also serve as conduits for the flow of helpful information that facilitates achieving goals. Social capital also operates through psychological and biological processes to improve individuals' lives. Mounting evidence suggests that people whose lives are rich in social capital cope



better with traumas and fight illness more effectively. Social capital makes an enormous difference to our lives.

Social capital has been mentioned by Coleman (1988) in his discussions of the social context of education. It has also been picked up by the World Bank as a useful organising idea. It is argued that 'increasing evidence shows that social cohesion is critical for societies to prosper economically and for development to be sustainable' (The World Bank 1999: 51). Cohen and Prusak have also come to see social capital as a focus for organizational maintenance and development (Cohen and Prusak 2001).

### **2.2.3 Human Resources development and learning**

Furthermore, learning is no longer regarded solely as a classroom activity, necessary to enable employees to become more proficient at a certain task. Instead, learning is increasingly seen primarily as a continuous work based activity, necessary to cope with changing demands from the organisational environment. Consequently, organisations are striving to create more opportunities for continuous employee learning, for instance, through teamwork, empowerment and broader job structures and design (Griffin 1938).

Such significant inhibiting factors were talked about as: insufficient HRD resources; a traditional culture and entrenched attitudes towards training; business pressures; and poor management skills. Key conducive factors included: sufficient HRD resources (human resource such as facilitation skills, learning expertise and flexible solution, as well as financial resources); management support for learning; and the increasing willingness to learn on the part of employees. A significant means of achieving a learning culture orientation is the focus on changing attitudes to learning through culture change programmes and the recognition of all forms of learning, not merely formal courses (Marchington 2005).

### **2.2.4 People knowledge and skills development**

Development of people refers to the advancement of knowledge, skills and competencies, and the improved behaviour of people within the organisation and community for all their personal and professional use. This reflects on the



individual's "individual development" (UNDP 1998). Development of people within organisations will reflect on the community itself and will lead to performance improvement so that the organisation can benefit from greater organisational efficiency, more effective competitive practices, and greater profitability, which are the main three components in HRM (Griffin 1938). Development, individual or organisational, cannot occur unless people participate in activities designed to introduce new knowledge and skills and to improve behaviours. This, of course, can be accomplished through daily work experience, but this is a hit or miss approach that requires more time with no guarantee of results. It could even mean the development of inadequate or inappropriate knowledge, skills, and behaviours. This is what human resource development is all about - the introduction of organised activities designed to foster increased knowledge, skills, competencies and improved behaviour. Simply stated, HRD refers to learning and to the activities that bring about desired change (ibid).

From an organisation perspective, however, it is not enough to simply increase the knowledge, skills and competencies of employees and improve their behaviour. These organisational efforts must result in performance improvement that will enhance the organisation's competitiveness and efficiency. Performance improvement, therefore, is the ultimate goal of HRD. In summary then, HRD can be defined as "organised learning activities arranged within an organisation in order to improve performance and/or personal growth for the purpose of improving the job, the individual, and/or the organisation (Gilley 1989:24).

In addition to defining HRD, HRD will be placed into a context that will reflect its relationship to the overall human resource function. Nadler (1986) calls this the 'Human Resource Concept'. The human resource concept refers to the holistic view of human resource process. The Human Resources Concept begins by separating human resources planning and forecasting, and human resource development. Each has a different purpose but all contribute and are essential to the human development and performance improvement formula.

Human resource utilisation refers to the placement and utilisation of human resource within an organisation. This includes promotions, appraisal, transfers and



compensation. Human resource planning and forecasting refers to the forecasting of future human resources and the appropriate planning for their recruitment, selection, training and career advancement. Human Resource Development refers to the preparation through learning activities of human resources for current jobs (training) and future work assignments (development) as well as individual enhancement (education). These are referred to as the three focus areas of human resource development training, development and education. The desired outcome of each area is the advancement of knowledge, competencies, skills and attitude acquisition, utilisation and improvement (Nadler 1986). Human resource development and training is referring to improving the individual or group skills by different learning approaches for example improving the basic skills (numeracy and literacy), improving the work skills and Information communication technology considered as a learning approaches.

## **2.3 IMPROVING ADULT SKILLS BY DIFFERENT LEARNING APPROACHES**

The third element in this chapter will discuss two main points. First will be the main steps involved in developing learning programmes and approaches. Second will be the literature review of the three approaches of adult learning chosen for the research in England: basic skills, e-learning and work based learning approaches and programmes.

### **2.3.1 Steps in designing learning and training programmes**

The purpose of adult education programs is to help learners gain the knowledge, skills and confidence they need to achieve their goals, meet their needs and solve their problems. Indeed, when adult learners stop attending classes, it is usually because they are too busy to waste their time on something that does not seem to be helpful to them as been mentioned by the interviewees in the research part in this study conducted in the North East of England by the researcher. Discussing and presenting the learning programmes for workforce skills and qualification improvement strategies in the North East of England is the research target area. Therefore, this section focuses on the literature review of the crucial steps in learning



and training programmes designing process to illustrate how the learning approaches that will follow in the second section of this chapter have been designed and planned.

#### 2.3.1.1 Identifying learning needs

When planning learning episodes, the first step should be to identify the gaps in an individual's or group's knowledge and experience that may impede learning and to highlight those skills that can provide opportunities for learning. This diagnosis enables the learning provider to decide on the activities, methods, resources, location and equipment that are most suited to learning for a particular individual or group. Decisions also need to be made about the start date, place of learning, targets, current knowledge, potential barriers to progress and motivation, not only to begin the process, but to continue with the learning experience (Tough 1971).

The initial stage in any learning process is to conduct a needs analysis of the target audience and interpret the results to identify people's natural or preferred ways to learn. When the European Lifelong Learning Initiative was carried out in small companies in 1995, half those interviewed had never been asked about their learning needs before; the project uncovered "an explosion of unsuspected, unfulfilled learning dreams" (Longworth 1999: 44). Longworth postulated:

"It is probable that half the learning desires of citizens lie latent and unarticulated because few people have been asked, or better, stimulated to express their learning needs" (Longworth 1999: p147).

A learning need has been identified as

"the discrepancy or gap between the competencies specified in the model and their present level of development by learners" (Knowles 1990: p128).

Lindner (1998:p97) suggests two methods of assessing this knowledge, skills and attitudes deficit:

1. Using various methods of data collection e.g. questionnaires, tests, appraisals, portfolios and comparing the findings with appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes
2. Quality assurance which means that the steps taken to make sure that a organisation products or services are of sufficiently high quality.



In England most providers and organisations responsible for identifying learning needs work on both approaches carrying out both market research and quality assurance. In chapter 5 there will be further explanation about how different providers and partners identify learning needs in Tyne and Wear.

Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) emphasise the importance of needs assessment before a learning experience begins. They describe a written response plus small group discussion technique frequently adopted for formal courses. This allows learners to be actively involved in determining specific needs around which subsequent learning activities are based. The individual needs assessment involves learners rating themselves on various competency areas to start to build personal responsibility for learning. This encourages learners to see how they can address problems or enhance personal strengths. As a result, learners can start to design their own learning objectives. The group discussions allow individual learning needs to be compared and can lead to more clearly defined personal needs and the discovery of previously unrecognised needs.

Learning needs depend, to a large extent, on a learner's own perception of the gap between where they are and where they want to be (Knowles 1990). This suggests that self-assessment tools or procedures may be the most appropriate means of determining users' learning needs. If learners are given an opportunity to share responsibility for planning and operating a learning environment, they may experience a greater feeling of commitment to the learning process.

One of Knowles' (1990) basic assumptions of adult learning is that of "responsible self-concept"; adults prefer to be self-directed and responsible for their own decisions, but from childhood they have been conditioned to depend on an educator. One of the key roles of the learning facilitator is, therefore, to assist the learner to make the transition from dependency to self-directed learning. This is not just true for adult learners however; many students have expressed a wish for more control over their learning experiences (Hooper-Greenhill and Moussouri 2001).

However, it has been argued elsewhere that much learning needs assessment only reflects personal interests and a learner's perceptions of their learning needs, rather



than being based on actual knowledge and skills deficits. For example, as Linder (1998) points out, people tend to be interested in subjects which they already have some knowledge or experience.

Nevertheless, it is generally agreed that learning needs can only be meaningful if learners themselves are actively involved in their development. Consultation and negotiation can also be a valuable means of maintaining learner motivation. People will only learn effectively if they feel ready to learn and learners may have a stronger orientation to learn when the skills or knowledge gained can be applied to real life situations. Knowles (1990) states that when a learner feels the need to learn, they should be exposed to new possibilities of self-fulfilment. A teacher or other facilitator can help to clarify their aspirations; help to diagnose gaps between aspirations and current performance; and assist in the identification of life problems that may impact on learning. Various categories of learner will view different types of learning as important to their learning experiences. In their work on learning in museums, Hooper-Greenhill and Moussouri (2001) found that children enjoyed actively doing things, while adults preferred mental activity; exchanging ideas and information and helping children to construct meaning from the exhibitions. This has implications for the design of exhibitions and activities intended to promote children's, adults' and families' learning.

Bohme and Spiller (1999) found that both independent learners and fulltime students prefer fairly short library visits, usually of less than one hour; just 6% of both groups preferred visits of more than four hours. Independent learners were less likely to use books or photocopiers, but more likely to use newspapers and magazines or to browse. Those registered as students were more likely to use other libraries than independent learners. This group (students) was less satisfied with staff helpfulness, the range of items available, ease of finding location, and opening hours. Independent learners had slightly different concerns - they were likely to be less satisfied with catalogues, equipment and study spaces (Bohme and Spiller 1999:76).

A user's learning needs may be immediate or longer term. For example, adult learners in Basic Skills, e-Learning and work-based learning programmes require immediate, practical information and assistance via signage, staffing and pathfinders



as well as more long term and specific support. Advisors need to recognise that learning needs change as a learner progresses from novice to more expert both in his or her chosen subject area and as a learner (Roy and Novotny 2000). According to Maslow, self-actualisation is the highest form of need, being placed above hygiene, nutrition, health, emotional awareness, self-esteem and interpersonal skills. It is related to a learner's education, ethics and values. Most adults have a desire to self-actualise through learning experiences; it has been described as "the ultimate goal of the adult learner" (Ingram 2000: 147). For this to be successfully achieved, learners require opportunities to use and practise new skills independently. Thus help to make learners more confident and capable on each successive trip, as competence through practical application.

#### 2.3.1.2 Methods of identifying learning needs

A variety of investigative techniques have been identified as suitable ways to identify learning needs in various situations.

##### *Aural methods*

For most people, learning is a social activity. Learning needs can be identified through a variety of listening techniques: formal or informal; non-structured or structured; and organised or natural. Informal discussion, individual interviews and group discussions are all valuable methods of data collection, but each has its inherent advantages and disadvantages. For example, group discussions take less time and facilitate interaction, but some learners may feel inhibited in such situations like in conversations in interviews and focus groups (Lucas and McManus 1986)

##### *Observational methods*

Learning needs can also be identified through observation. This might focus on a small group or track a particular aspect of learning during a visit or throughout a longer learning process. Notes, schedules, checklists, audio or video can be used to record data. Observation assumes "that it is possible to infer something about the way that learning is taking place by observation of the learner in action" (Lucas and McManus 1986: 344). Observation of non-verbal behaviour can provide information about the sequence of activities; time spent in total and on the components of the

learning experience; interaction with others; and other activities such as use of shops and cafes.

### *Written methods*

These can include:

- *Questionnaires*
- *Diaries*
- *Drawing*
- *Pre- and post-tests*

Skills, psychometric or other tests are easy to analyse and quantify to diagnose current gaps in skills, knowledge or attitudes as well as to identify potential. However, they may not be suitable methods of identifying all types of learning need and may not be easy to apply in the particular learning situations (Lucas and McManus 1986:344).

- Learning audits
- Personal Meaning Mapping
- Other

Merritt (in Ford 1980) developed a classification system for the analysis of information in the form of a matrix. This divided information and learning needs into life roles (home, family, employment, consumer, leisure, community) and human needs (physical, operant, respondent, co-operant, epistemic, evaluative). Other written methods that may be used to determine learning needs include: checklists, brainstorming and brain writing.

### 2.3.1.3 Choice of method and lists the priorities

It is often appropriate to use multiple methods of analysing learning needs as the data collected by one method alone may not be sufficiently comprehensive or accurate. Any methods that position a researcher between the learner and the learning resource may affect validity. For this reason, unobtrusive methods of data collection that ask learners to reconstruct an experience immediately after it takes place are preferred. In general, the choice of method is limited by the type of learning taking place and there needs to be a balance between the amount of information collected and the time available when assessing learning needs (Ford 1980).



Learners may have difficulties in prioritising their learning needs “due to the huge amount of these needs” (Lindner 1998p24). For this reason, it is very important to have different learning approach implement as in England to cover a variety of needs. However, the learning provider should not assume control of the learning; “it is necessary that adult learners feel some control over the learning in order to be successful” (Linder 1998:p24).

When attempting to identify their learning needs, learners and learning providers need “an awareness of a state of ‘not knowing’” (Ford 1980:100). As Ford stated: A basic premise of an education system is that the individual is in such a state of ‘not knowing’ something or in other words that he has a need for information of some sort, and that the educational system has something to offer in relation to remedying the situation (Ford 1980: p100).

People are often not sufficiently self aware to talk about their learning needs. People who have only experienced one type of learning, for example, only classroom-based instruction, may not be in a position to make judgements about the full range of alternatives. However, they may be able to think in terms of solving problems that involve information-gathering more easily.

The problem of identifying learning needs is exacerbated by the fact that “many learners do not actually see themselves as learners” (Drodge 1988: p31). This may mean that “learning enquiries are not always immediately recognisable as such” (Drodge 1988: p50). Neale found that “Any mention of the word learning or education tended to elicit negative responses” (Neale 1983: p3), for example people thought they were too old or simply that learning was not for them. To try to overcome this reluctance to discuss learning, the interviewers in this project started by asking interviewees to talk about their hobbies and interests, only introducing learning concepts later in the interview when respondents were more at ease.

#### 2.3.1.4 Learning Theories

Cognitive and social psychology researchers have found that learners develop their own strategies geared to different anticipated learning contexts. Individuals learn at differing rates and using a variety of methods in accordance with their



characteristics, needs and existing levels of knowledge and skills. To cater for individual learners, learning providers need to structure information in appropriate ways to match various learning styles. While traditional systems have adequately satisfied the most widespread learning needs, educators need to be aware of and able to adapt to individual learning styles, beliefs and attitudes. One example of this is through the use of Independent Learning Systems that provide differentiated access to information based on pre-test and ongoing responses (Hooper-Greenhill and Moussouri 2001). According to Hooper-Greenhill and Moussouri:

“By virtue of differences in both genes and experience, every individual uniquely acquires, processes and stores information” (Hooper-Greenhill and Moussouri 2001: p3).

The process of learning is based on six major factors: existing knowledge and experience; subsequent reinforcing experiences; motivation and attitudes; culture and background; design and presentation; and physical setting. Each individual develops preferred ways of organising and transforming what they see, hear, remember and think about into useful knowledge. Approaches to learning reflect personal experiences such as extent and type of formal education; current circumstances; and reasons for the need for increased knowledge. Although learning style tends to remain stable throughout life, individuals are able to adapt as circumstances demand (Hooper-Greenhill and Moussouri 2001)

As it has been mentioned by Gilley and Eggland (1990), learning can be defined as knowledge obtained by study and /or experience; the art of acquiring knowledge, skills, competencies, attitudes, and ideals that are retained and used; a change of behaviour through experience. The last definition tells us that learning includes change. Unfortunately, how learning occurs, or better yet, how change takes place, is not a subject totally agreed on by researchers and scholars. Today, there are several theories of how learning occurs, each with a different view of, or orientation to, the "nature of human being". As a basis for finding out how people learn, the following paragraphs will examine several learning theories:

*Behaviourist Theory:* this theory equates the human being with the machine, that is, as with the machine, an input is introduced (stimulus), which is controlled (how the input is processed- known as operant conditioning), and a predetermined output



(response) results. Accordingly, the purpose of learning is to produce prescribed behaviours- how one should perform. This is the so-called stimulus-response theory fostered by E. L. Thorndike, E.R. Guthrie, Clark Hull, and B. F. Skinner (Gilley and Egglund 1990).

*Cognitive Theory*: this theory equates the human being with the brain, in that the one thing that separates human beings from other living things is their capacity to think critically and solve problems. This theory maintains that the purpose of learning is to lead the brain to engage in critical thinking and problem solving (Gilley and Egglund 1990).

*Gestalt Theory*: this theory is also in the cognitive realm, but involves the whole personality. Advocates of this theory believe that the whole is more than the sum of its parts- a gestalt. According to this theory, the psychological organisation of the individual tends to move always in one direction; always toward a good gestalt, an organisation of the whole which is regular, simple, and stable (Lippitt and Lippitt 1986). Another part of this theory is the law of equilibrium. When confronted by learning situations, tensions develop and disequilibrium results. The individual moves away from equilibrium; however, at the same time the individual strives to move back to equilibrium. In order to allow the individual to move back to a state of equilibrium or a more stable state, the learning situation should be structured and organised (e.g. simple part presented first; or difficult parts presented next, so that the learner can group each) (ibid).

*Humanistic Theory*: this approach maintains that all people are unique and possess individual potential. It also posited that all people have the natural capacity to learn; thus, the purpose of learning is to encourage individual developing his or her potential ( Gilley and Egglund 1990).

Each of these theories above prescribes its own preferred approach to learning. “The behaviourist theory prescribes programmatic instruction and behaviour modification, computer-assisted instruction and repetition. The cognitive theory fosters didactic instruction, rote memorisation, and standardised testing of correct solutions to identified problems. The gestalt prescribes organised and systematic instruction beginning with a simple concept and moving toward the more complicated. The humanistic approach maintains and advocates the discovery model, underlining



learning projects and self-directed inquiry and learning”(Gilley and Eggland 1990:89).

There are other learning theories put forward by Gilley and Eggland (1990):

*Andragogy*: another learning theory, which is based on humanistic orientation, is known as andragogy. Andragogy, derived from the Greek word *Anere* for "Adult" and *agogus* meaning "leader of" refers to the art and science of helping adults to learn. According to Knowles (1985), adults learn differently from children, and a HRD learning specialist should understand that their trainees or learners, not being children, should not be treated as such. The andragogical theory of learning makes several assumptions - about adults as learners, program design and instructional methodologies, and approaches used by learning specialists.

*Synergogy*: synergogy derives from greek word synergos, that is, "working together". Working together means shared teaching. Mouton and Blake (1984) report that synergogy is different from other learning theories in three ways:

- It offers meaningful direction through learning design and instruments.
- It relies on a team rather than an individual or group approach.
- It is based on the gestalt theory of learning, that is, the whole can be more than the sum of its parts.

### *Experiential Learning*

As expressed in Lindeman's (1926) the experiential adult learning theory was defined as "the adult learner's living textbook" (1926, p. 7) and that adult education was, therefore, "a continuing process of evaluating experiences" (p. 85). This emphasis on experience is central to the concept of andragogy that has evolved to describe adult education practice in societies as diverse as the United States, Britain, France, Hungary, Poland, Russia, Estonia, Czechkoslovakia, Finland and Yugoslavia (Savicevic 1991). The belief that adult teaching should be grounded in adults' experiences, and that these experiences represent a valuable resource, is currently cited as crucial by adult educators of every conceivable ideological hue. Of all the models of experiential learning that have been developed, Kolb's (1984) has probably been the most influential in prompting theoretical work among researchers of adult learning (Jarvis, 1987). But almost every textbook on adult education practice affirms the importance of experiential methods such as games, simulations, case



studies, psychodrama, role play and internships and many universities now grant credit for adults' experiential learning. Yet, an exclusive reliance on accumulated experience as the defining characteristic of adult learning contains two discernible pitfalls.

First, experience should not be thought of as an objectively neutral phenomenon, a river of thoughts, perceptions and sensations into which the people decide. Rather, people's experience is culturally framed and shaped (Savicevic 1991). How the human experiences events and the perceptions they have of these are problematic; that is, they change according to the language and categories of analysis they use, and according to the cultural, moral and ideological vantage points from which they are viewed. In a very important sense people construct their experience: how they sense and interpret what happens to them and to the world around them is a function of structures of understanding and perceptual filters that are so culturally embedded that they are scarcely aware of their existence or operation. Second, the quantity or length of experience is not necessarily connected to its richness or intensity. For example, in an adult educational career spanning 30 years the same one year's experience can, in effect, be repeated thirty times. Indeed, one's 'experience' over these 30 years can be interpreted using uncritically assimilated cultural filters in such a way as to prove to oneself that students from certain ethnic groups are lazy or that fear is always the best stimulus to critical thinking (Vooglaid and Marja, 1992). Because of the habitual ways they draw meaning from their experiences, these experiences can become evidence for the self-fulfilling prophecies that stand in the way of critical insight.

'Experiential learning' can apply to any kind of learning through experience. 'Experiential learning' is often used by providers of training or education to refer to a structured learning sequence which is guided by a cyclical model of experiential learning. Less contrived forms of experiential learning (including accidental or unintentional learning) are usually described in more everyday language such as 'learning from experience' or 'learning through experience'.

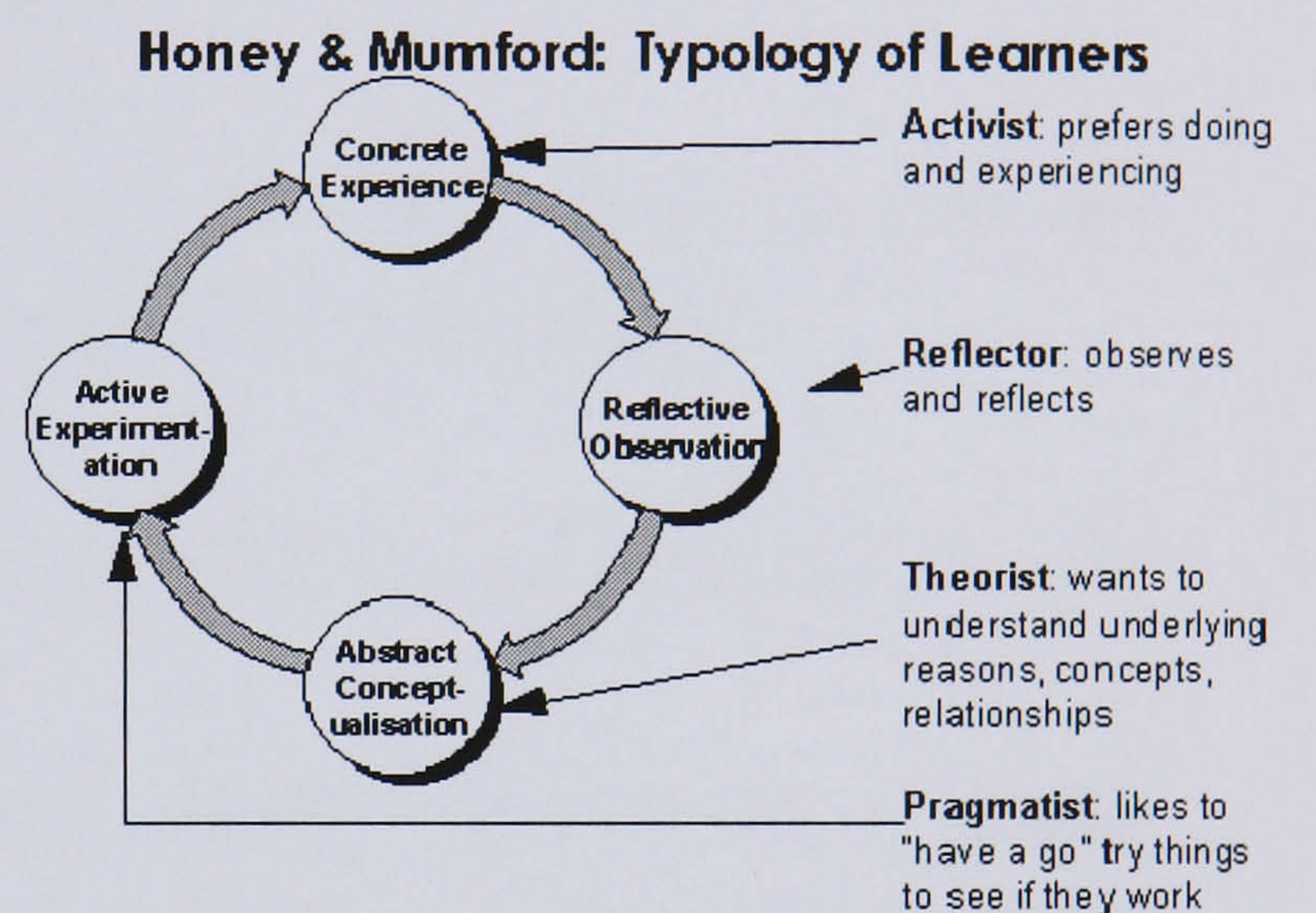
The concept of experiential learning explores the cyclical pattern of all learning from Experience through Reflection and Conceptualising to Action and on to further



Experience. Kolb (1984) provides one of the most useful descriptive models of the adult learning process. This suggests that there are four stages which follow on from each other: Concrete Experience is followed by Reflection on that experience on a personal basis. This may then be followed by the derivation of general rules describing the experience, or the application of known theories to it (Abstract Conceptualisation), and hence to the construction of ways of modifying the next occurrence of the experience (Active Experimentation), leading in turn to the next Concrete Experience. All this may happen in a flash, or over days, weeks or months, depending on the topic, and there may be a "wheels within wheels" process at the same time (ibid).

Honey and Mumford (1982) have built a typology of learning styles around this sequence, identifying individual preferences for each stage (Activist, Reflector, Theorist, Pragmatist respectively), Kolb (1984) also has a test instrument (the Learning Style Inventory) but has carried it further by relating the process also to forms of knowledge.

**Fig 1**



Source: Kolb1984:125)

### 2.3.1.5 Models of learning

There are many models of learning identified in educational literature, but some are more useful than others in attempting to understand the learning needs of adults learning

Honey & Mumford classified learners as one of four types:

- activists who seek new experiences, excitement, change, freedom and challenges
- pragmatists who prefer practical methods and forms of applied learning
- reflectors who like to observe, think and reflect using detailed, well-structured learning materials
- theorists who choose to develop a personal system, to question or probe through methodological exploration and enjoy being intellectually stretched (in Harris and Bell 1994).



Kolb developed a different classification. He identified four essential types of learning ability: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation (Kolb 1984). His theory is based on the notion that, for each individual, some abilities become more dominant, leading to a preferred learning style.

- Convergers have narrow interests and are strong in the practical application of ideas
  - Divergers are strong in imaginative ability and have broad cultural interests; they are good at generating ideas.
  - Assimilators learn by creating theoretical models and are more concerned with abstract concepts rather than people.
  - Accommodators tend to solve problems intuitively; they take risks and perform well when required to react to immediate circumstances.

Yet another approach has been taken by Moreland and Carnwell (2001), who identified three methods of learning.

- Systematic Waders participate in 'deep learning'; they favour a serialist approach, preferring to have information presented one step at a time. These learners tend to take few shortcuts and this may mean they quickly begin to feel 'bogged down'. Systematic waders are interested in content and generally enjoy learning; they prefer to use closed or highly structured learning materials and work with a tutor playing a passive role ( Moreland and Carnwell 2001).
- Speedy Focusers prefer a more holistic approach; they like to see the 'whole picture' at the start of the learning experience. They are able to focus quickly on key points and locate relevant materials very efficiently. They also prefer a passive tutor, but, unlike systematic waders, choose to use open and flexible learning materials (ibid).
- Global dippers select learning materials according to their perceived relevance to their interests or requirements. Although they tend to begin systematically, they quickly resort to dipping in and out and often need to seek advice. Global dippers may find the process of learning difficult, especially the selection of appropriate learning materials. There is a danger that they may only be passively engaged in



the learning experience and do not progress beyond surface learning (Moreland and Carnwell 2001).

As many of the learners that the research deals with are adults, a slightly different approach may be needed from that offered by pedagogical theory alone. Adult learners differ from children in several key ways. The first may be encapsulated in the phrase “need to know”; adults need to be aware of their need for information before they are motivated to engage in and invest time in learning. Another important distinction is that all adults have prior experiences which they are able to bring to their learning; this means that experiential techniques and methods such as group discussion, simulation exercises and problem-solving are particularly suited to adults’ learning styles.

Lindeman outlines several key assumptions of adult learning (in Knowles 1990). He believes that orientation to learning is life-centred; adults are motivated to learn as they recognise that they have experience, needs and interests that learning will satisfy. Learning is most fruitful when it has a practical application in everyday life and the recognition of these practical needs is the starting point for organised adult learning activities. Lindeman further claims that prior experience is the richest resource for adults’ learning. This suggests that adults need to be self-directing in their learning experiences; the role of the teacher is, therefore, to engage with students in mutual enquiry rather than just transmit knowledge (Knowles 1990).

Adult education tutors make use of a wide variety of presentational methods, formats, activities, schedules, resources and evaluative procedures to attempt to meet the needs of all types of learner. The mode of learning is frequently dictated by the field of study or by a learner’s reasons for engaging in learning. For example, interactive modes may be sought for social reasons, or to gain confidence before undertaking independent learning (Neale 1983). However, adults’ life experience will have the greatest value in experiential, rather than more passive, learning techniques and when each learner has the potential to act as a resource for the rest of the group (Ingram 2000).



#### 2.3.1.6 Learning Style and Strategy

It has been agreed by scholars that every individual has a unique approach to learning; however, they do not agree on how to define or explain a person's learning style. One approach suggests that a person's learning style is composed of different modalities including, but not limited to, the perceptual, cognitive, emotional, and social modes. It is comprised of seven elements: *aural*, *tactile*, *interactive*, *kinesthetic*, *olfactory*, *print* and *visual* (James and Galbraith, 1984). In summary:

- *Aural* individuals learn best through listening
- *Tactile* individuals learn best through the sense of touch
- *Interactive* individuals learn best through verbalisation
- *Kinesthetic* individuals learn best while moving
- *Olfactory* individuals learn best through the senses of smell and taste
- *Print* individuals learn best through reading and writing
- *Visual* individual learn best through observations.

However, other literature defined learning style as “the learning style theory implies that how much individuals learn has more to do with whether the educational experience is geared toward their particular style of learning than whether or not they are smart”( James and Galbraith, 1984: p93)

Also learning styles knowledge can also assist adult learners in recognising why some past learning activities were more worthwhile or useful than others, and why some learning activities were less meaningful to them (James and Galbraith, 1984).

Gilley and Egglund (1990) suggest that there are two learning strategies - an activity strategy and an impact strategy:

*An activity strategy* is an approach practitioners use to design and develop learning programs when little or on impact on change is desired or expected. Programs are offered as an "activity" for learners. Often referred to as a fringe benefit approach, the focus is on the delivery of the programs. Learner experts who embrace this approach report on the number of courses they offer and the number of people attending them as a way of measuring and validating their value.



*An impact strategy* is an approach practitioners use to develop and deliver programs when change is not only expected, but as much as possible can be assured. The focus is on obtaining learning results through learning and skill transfer. Learning practitioners who use this approach report on outcomes as a means of validating their programs. Frequently, learning practitioners utilize this strategy as a way of improving performance deficiencies on the level of organisations or community level. The impact strategy appears to be the favoured view. It is in popularity but unfortunately is not the predominant choice ( Gelly and Eggland 1990).

#### 2.3.1.7 Learning objectives

Every training and learning program has a set of desired outcomes. These outcomes are statements of what the learner should know, be able to do, or how a learner should behave as a result of the program. These outcomes, known as learning objectives, serve four primary functions. First they define the desired outcomes of the program. Second they serve as a guide to the selection of strategies and methods of instruction. Third, they serve as criteria for the development and /or selection of learning activities. Finally, they provide criteria for the evaluation of learning (Lutterodt,1983). Thus, learning activities play a critical role in the planning and implementation of instruction.

The main focus of learning activities is on results rather than on the methods of instruction used. They serve the learning specialist as a standard for which he or she will guide and direct learners. For the learner, they serve as a goal for their effort. Thus, they serve as a way for learners to monitor their own progress. As Gilley and Eggland (1990) pointed out, a well written learning objective describes the behaviour that must be observed in order to verify that the intended learning has taken place. In order for this to take place an objective should contain three components. First, the desired performance or learning must be identified. Second, the conditions under which the task must be performed or learning duplicated should be identified. Third, the minimal, acceptable level of performance or knowledge must be identified. This is often referred to as a standard of performance or knowledge. A standard may relate to the speed, accuracy, specification of performance, and or consequences which may result form the performance or knowledge. Once the performance or knowledge,



conditions and standards have been identified, learning objectives can be written more clearly and precisely.

#### 2.3.1.8 Learning Activities

It is essential during the design of any training or learning program to develop learning activities which will provide learners with an opportunity to develop knowledge, behaviour, and skills desired. These activities are based on the identified learning objectives as well as based on the information collected and analysed during the needs assessment and analysis data.

Learning activities may included games, group project, panel discussions, debates, readings, presentations, report and papers, and on-the-job observations and or performance. Each should be selected based upon the unique opportunities they provide the learner, that provides a different way of deepening the understanding of an idea, truth, skill, or attitude. The selection of the most appropriate learning activity is based on the characteristics of the activity that will produce the greatest level of understanding. Thus the learning activities should answer these question "where am I going?" and "how will I get there?" (Gilley and Egglund 1990)

#### 2.3.1.9 Learning materials

A very fundamental output in training, educational learning program consists of the materials the learners are going to use, the most common being the handout. The purpose of this form of material is to provide information pertinent to the learner as well as a quick reference for further study and review.

Handouts can include several important types of information useful to learners: objectives, exercises, references, outlines, table and figures and basic content related to the lesson. It is essential to report the objectives for each lesson to the learner in order to make clear what is expected and how they will be measured. Exercise is very important to be included to help the learner to practice skills. References help learners with future inquiries and help in self-directed learning and individualised study. Outlines help the learner focus on the important ideas, facts, concepts and remain on task, instead of concentrating on minor points or facts. Finally tables and figures can be used when large amounts of information need to be presented in a



concise manner, or when a graphic representation is required. Visual learners also prefer this type of presentation because it allows them to better understand the information and concept (Lutterodt, 1983).

To conclude that these previous steps for designing any learning training program that can be used to delivering the learning approaches projects and program such as basic skills program, learndirect program as e- learning program, or work based learning program. Theses approaches will discussed later in details

### **2.3.2 Gaining skills by different learning approaches**

This section will cover the literature review of the 3 learning approaches that have been chosen for the research in England which are: Basic Skills, E-Learning and Work Based Learning.

#### **2.3.2.1 Basic skills:**

People need a broad range of skills in order to contribute to a modern economy and take their place in the technological society of the twenty-first century. Basic skills presents by ELWA (Education and Learning Wales Agency) as the Poor literacy and numeracy skills which have been identified by ELWA as being among the most serious barriers to social and economic regeneration in Wales. The Basic Skills Agency (BSA) has estimated that over three-quarters of a million people in Wales need varying degrees of support to enable them to develop their basic skills (BSA, 1997). Moreover, research has highlighted the links between a lack of basic skills and economic deprivation, social exclusion and crime. Individuals with limited basic skills are more likely to be long-term unemployed or employed in low-skilled jobs, to live in substandard housing and to suffer ill-health.

In recent years policy-makers in the UK have become increasingly concerned about the issue of workers' basic skills. This has been partly as a result of complaints by employers about the poor skill level of British workers. The Moser Report, a national survey into literacy and numeracy, in 1999 announced that about 7 million adults in England (or 1 in 5 adults) has 'less literacy than is expected of an 11-year-old child' (DfEE 1999c). Nearly four out of 10 adults in some parts of England cannot read or write properly or do simple sums according to a Basic Skills Agency's report (Basic



Skills Agency 2000). Moser (DfEE 1999c) suggested that the 'skills gap' is one of the worst in Europe. The National Literacy Trust (1998) stated on its website that: 'A growing body of evidence suggests that Britain has a bigger problem with inadequate skills – among both young people and adults – than any other industrialised country except the USA. A study of the skills gap, the International Adult Literacy Survey, carried out and published by the Office for National Statistics in March 1998, shows Britain to be far behind the four other West European countries in the study – Germany, Sweden, Switzerland and the Netherlands.'

The current UK government is committed to tackling poor literacy and numeracy, but much of the emphasis thus far has been on finding ways to improve the basic skills of those who are still in the school system, with initiatives such as the National Strategies for Numeracy and Literacy. These initiatives will obviously not help adults, who have already left the education system, to overcome their numeracy and literacy problems. Instead, Moser suggested a National Strategy for Adult Basic Skills, with clear and ambitious national targets to reduce the number of functionally illiterate and innumerate adults

More firms complain about the lack of higher level skills, such as management and I.T. skills (Robinson, 1997). By contrast, several reports have put very high estimates on the cost of poor basic skills for the British economy (ALBSU, 1993), although such calculations are problematic.

Focusing on the effects of poor basic skills, Parsons and Bynner (1998) found evidence that adults with poor numeracy or literacy are more likely to be unemployed, less likely to receive on-the-job training, less likely to own their own home and more likely to be in prison. On the other hand, Green et al (1998) found that UK workers who used some basic skills for their job, such as mathematical skills, earned no more than those who did not use such skills.

In general to conclude that, although many more individuals have poor numeracy skills than have poor literacy skills, the empirical evidence on the effects of basic skills supports the view that both literacy and numeracy skills are important determinants of economic outcomes.



#### 2.3.2.2 E-Learning:

E-learning is the learning which is facilitated and supported through the use of information and communications technology. E-learning can cover “a spectrum of activities from supported learning, to blended learning (the combination of traditional and e-learning practices)” (Perraton 1981:p13). E-learning is offered using electronic delivery methods such as CD-ROMs, video conferencing, websites and e-mail, and is often used in distance-learning programmes. There has been much written about e-learning practice, however little attention has been given to e-learning theory. Over twenty years ago, Perraton pointed out that “distance education has managed very well without any theory” (1981:p13). The same can be said today of e-learning, though whether or not it has ‘managed very well’ may not be so accurate as mentioned by Perraton that ‘Still, the incredible weight of published articles, institutional investment in practice and uptake of web-based education tools in the past decade testifies that e-learning practice has achieved a momentum that will make it a central part of future education’ (Perraton 1981: p14).

However, much of the e-learning literature is based on practice and is presented in a descriptive form. The majority of conference presentations consist of a ‘here’s what we did and here’s the evaluation’ format which do little for transferability to other institutions or even other courses (Watson 2001:250). In addition, it is unlikely that e-learning practice will continue to evolve unless the theoretical underpinnings of e-learning are explored and debated, providing a wider platform and a common philosophy for e-learning development (Ravenscroft 2001). There are few examples of academic literature specifically concerned with e-learning theory. However, the use of technology in education has tended to be technology-led rather than theory-led (Ravenscroft 2001). It is well stated by Watson (2001:251) that “the cart has been placed before the horse.”

Keegan (1983: p3 cited in Holmberg 1997) suggested that theory could be used as a “touch-stone against which decisions – political, financial, educational, social – when they have to be taken, can be taken with confidence” Keegan (1983: p4). Keegan’s comments related to distance education, which now has a firmly established



theoretical basis. At present there is no such 'touch-stone' for e-learning and there are few theorists can be identified as authoritative (Holmberg 1997).

As Ravenscroft mentioned that "if literature is likened to a 'tree of knowledge' about a particular subject the dire need for more e-learning theory becomes clear. Practice based research can be likened to the branches of the tree, those parts that are readily visible and most easily appreciated. Theoretical principles can be likened to the roots; they do not provide any practical things for people like shade or fruit and neither are they aesthetically pleasing. However it is the root system that determines the health of the tree and also the extent to which it can grow" (Ravenscroft 2001:136). Unless attention is given to e-learning theory, e-learning practice cannot develop fully without further debate and development in the theoretical underpinnings,

E-learning involves the use of a number of technological tools that can be applied in various contexts. E-learning is a educational system that can be used within different other education system. Therefore e-learning cannot be compared with face to face delivery or distance education because it can be used within either of these models. Instead, e-learning is a means by which these education models can be implemented. This hypothesis is confirmed by institutions such as the Open University, which uses e-learning as an adjunct to its "supported open learning" model (Eisenstadt and Vincent, 2000).

It is also possible to apply different education approaches using e-learning. The use of technology in education has a significant history. Apparently, computers were applied in behaviourist modes in accordance with Skinner's work (Ravenscroft 2001), which emphasized the teacher's control over what is learned and how it is to be learned. More recently, emphasis is on the constructivist use of technologies which provide students with opportunities to established and improve their own knowledge, understandings and skills. Skinner's behaviourism, Piaget's cognitive constructivism and Vygotsky's social constructivism can all be facilitated through e-learning. Tam (2000) provides an excellent overview of how technology can be used for constructivist purposes. However, it is also true that e-learning enables a form of educational convergence (Tam 2000).



One of the most exciting aspects of e-learning is to enable new expressions and skills of education that can potentially combine the strengths of face-to-face and distance forms of education in various ways using various technologies such as bulletin boards (Coppola et al 2002). It is also acknowledged that e-learning changes the role of the instructor and tutor, particularly in online environments (Coppola et al 2002), however it is argued that this represents a more developed learning form of existing instructional methodologies. Others, particularly in industry-based training, use the term blended learning. Blended learning can be thought by Nichols as a new genus, not a new species; it is the result of evolution, not revolution. The difficulty is what terminology to use in order to refer to these new forms of education. The term mixed-mode is commonly used to describe a blend of face-to-face and distance education that does not necessarily have a high technology component. Some prefer the term resource-based learning (Nichols 2001). Ravenscroft argues that it is clear that the distinction between purely online and partly online is an important one, and that the philosophical framework of a course, Weller's framework is to be preferred when categorizing such courses (Ravenscroft 2001).

To conclude, if e-learning is to have an effective future beyond much of the hype and experimentation that reflects much of the existing literature, it is vital that its theoretical underpinnings be made explicit and available for critique (Weller 2002). Ravenscroft (2001:150) remarks that "given that the pace of change of educational technology is unlikely to slow down, the need for relatively more stable and theoretically founded interaction models is becoming increasingly important." The more debate about e-learning theory, the more prepared for e-learning will take place from the practitioners of technology development (Nichols 2001).

#### 2.3.2.3 Work-Based Learning

Work-Based Learning is a modern approach of creating university or college level learning in the workplace. Its special work-linked features enable learning to take place at, through - and be centred on - the working environment. By using an actual work role and an organisations' objectives as the focus for academic enquiry, Work-Based Learning is uniquely structured to benefit both the individual employee and the employers. Work-Based Learning is especially beneficial for mature learners who



want to combine higher education with professional development. It is expressly suited to people in full-time employment - employers have much to gain too.

Work-Based Learning is based upon the premise that learning does not only take place in lecture theatres, seminar rooms or laboratories. Instead people working in commercial, public sector and voluntary organisations spend a large part of their lives in a potentially rich learning environment (Billett 2000.)

Raelin (2000) argues that work-based learning can be distinguished from traditional classroom learning in a number of important ways. Firstly, Work-Based Learning is centred around *reflection* on work practices; it is not merely a question of acquiring a set of technical skills, but a case of reviewing and learning from experience. Secondly, Work-Based Learning views learning as arising from action and problem solving within a working environment, and thus is centred around live projects and challenges to individuals and organisations. Work-Based Learning also sees the creation of knowledge as a shared and collective activity, one in which people discuss ideas, and share problems and solutions. Finally, Work-Based Learning requires not only the acquisition of new knowledge but the acquisition of meta-competence – learning to learn.

Eraut et al (1998) argue that what is termed workplace learning is a largely hidden element of lifelong learning and one which has not been accorded the eminence it deserves in policy documents. They argue that formal learning in the workplace (the main focus of UK government policy) provides only a small part of what is learned at work. Most learning that arises is not planned and is informal, resulting from the challenge of the work itself and from interactions with people in the workplace. Achieving the goals of work requires new learning that is achieved by a combination of thinking, experimentation and dialogue with other people. Sometimes, however, this approach is recognised as inadequate and other opportunities for learning are sought out, which may include self-directed learning or formal learning or training. Even the latter, though, requires supplementation by experience at work and interaction with other people.

This learning from others is sometimes facilitated by organised support such as mentoring, shadowing or coaching. But the most common form of learning from



others takes place through forms of collaboration and consultation within working groups. This may include teamwork and observing others performing a task. The research of Eraut et al (1998) also found that people learnt through seeking help and advice beyond the immediate work environment from people within their own organisation, from customers and suppliers and from wider professional networks.

Work-Based Learning is an approach which focuses upon the practical utility of learning and is therefore directly relevant to learners and their work environment. A WBL approach to learning acknowledges that learning can take place in a variety of situations and settings, and is not restricted to that developed through the classroom or lecture theatre (Boreham et al 2002). All WBL programmes utilise a range of tools to aid and enhance learning - including lecture sessions, workshops, tutorials, learning sets, and online guided learning activities. This 'blended' learning approach enables WBL programmes to be tailored to student needs and preferences, whilst still operating within an academic framework. WBL is a practical and successful way of creating University-level learning that is directly related to the workplace (Billett 2000).

In the workplace, there is an acknowledged need to match individual skills and knowledge to job demands. The Adaptive Style Inventory is one example of a learning assessment tool used in the workplace. This is used to assess an individual's learning style in eight specific situations in life and determine 'adaptive flexibility' or the degree to which learning style changes to meet the varying learning demands of different situations. The premise behind this is that, in general terms, flexibility indicates a more integrated or sophisticated learning style (Mabey and Iles 1994).

Work-Based Learning is a subset of workplace learning. It refers specifically to the achievement of planned learning outcomes, its derived from the experience of performing a work role. In addition, it is normal practice to complement the experiential learning with directed reading, research or group work to ensure that the learning is placed in the context of current theory or practice. Such experiential learning must be capable of being evidenced and assessed before it can be recognised. It is characterised as focusing on knowing how to; often emphasises learning and mentoring; emphasises transferable skills and competences; provides



students with the experience to carry out routine tasks effectively and to identify non routine or unpredictable situations; and requires students to develop reflective skills, to reflect on their actions and to develop and refine their own conceptual models (Eraut 2003).

Work Based Learning is generally characterised by schemes of work placement and sandwich programmes for students, including a wide range of project work, vacation and short placements and more recently accompanied by the assessment of work based competencies and accreditation of in-company courses (Ravenscroft 2001). The assessment of competence has increased in importance in education and training in the last decade. It is more than the ability to perform specific tasks; it includes capability which Eraut & Cole (1993) describe as the ability to:

- Assimilate underpinning knowledge and understanding
- Acquire and use core skills
- Develop the cognitive processes needed to apply the knowledge and understanding to workplace issues.

## **Conclusion**

In this chapter a series of three elements and sub elements have been examined. Starting with an overview of element analysed the steps that should be followed when designing any learning and training approach and programmes, and the learning approaches that have been chosen for the research study in North East of England. The third learning in general, its meaning and its relation to adult learning; how learning can affect the economic development and the use of Human Resources Development to re-enforce the workforce was examined.

All the topics and sub-topics has been mentioned above and covered in the literature review will be examined on the practical level on North East of England using the qualitative methodology and applying different models of interviews, which methodology presents in the next chapter.



# **CHAPTER 3**

## **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This section outlines the overall methodology selected to conduct the study. The aim of this chapter is to examine the research methodology and method that has been used in the study, covering different elements such as qualitative methods of research, the research techniques, interviews process and the ethic issue related to the research study. The overall methodology includes qualitative research with support to quantities secondary resources, based on interviewing people by different methods; including semi-structured interviews as a main tool (Appendix 3 illustrates the question areas, topics and sub-topics of the research). The study explores recommended ideas to be implemented in Egypt. The unit of analysis are the formal and informal mechanisms for learning and developing practical understanding of learning and its impact on the workforce.

### **3.1 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS**

The objective of this research is to learn lessons from the UK experience of adult learning, based on a case study of North-East England in three learning approaches in the workforce in the Health Care and Early Years sectors, and to consider how these lessons might be applied in Egypt.

The overall purpose of the first part of this research study was to answer the main question: ‘How do government departments and social partners work together to improve skills and vocational training in the North East?’ Within this main question, a number of more specific research questions will be addressed:

- What are the learning needs and problems adults face in every day life?
- What are the obstacles and barriers facing learners and how can they be overcome?
- What resources for learning exist (e.g. e-learning or work based)?
- What are the learning lessons and best practices discovered during research in the North East?



The second part of the research study will view economic and educational reform in Egypt and suggest implementation of projects designed to improve workforce skills.

The second part of the research study will answer the following questions:

- How do Egyptian learning approaches compare to those examined in the North East?
- What are the workforce problems facing Egypt?
- What are the objectives of vocational education and economic reform in Egypt?
- What initial recommendations can be made to overcome these problems?

### 3.2 RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

Generally, research techniques fall into two categories: qualitative and quantitative methodology. In the quantitative approach, there are many methods such as surveys and questionnaires. In qualitative methods, there are different approaches such as interviews, biographical methods, focus groups, institutional approaches, case study and participant observation (McCracken et al 1988). Qualitative methodology is employed most in this research study. Qualitative research relates mainly to interviews done on a small scale. It uses smaller samples than in quantitative methods, dealing with each individual as a unique being. This research study is more interested in the depth of the data rather than its breadth, and it requires the researcher to play an active role in the data collection.

The strategy of data analysis in this research study is divided into two parts, each part has its own approach as the table shows below:

**Fig 2: Research Strategy**

	First part of research study	Second part of the research study
Location	UK	Egypt
Approach	Inductive	Deductive
Idea	Study the programme in North East region UK to draw learning lessons, case studies and thesis	Recommended ideas to be implement in Egypt drawn from research in North Region of the UK



The first part of the study objective is based on studying the learning approaches for adults in England, and the missions, objectives and problems that these programmes are trying to solve. It is based mainly on interviews with those involved in adult learning as providers and learners. It also makes use of observation of learning, and of documentary analysis.

The second part of the research study recommends approaches to learning to be implemented in Egypt based on the learning lessons and hypotheses discovered in the first part of the research study. The second part is based on desk research, reviewing and surveying the secondary resources based on the system in Egypt.

### **3.3 RESEARCH METHODS IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH**

This section will demonstrate the nature and basic methods of qualitative research. It will explain the nature and philosophical backgrounds of qualitative research in social policy. It will also discuss how to collect, analyse, and display qualitative data.

#### **3.3.1 Meanings and characteristics of qualitative research**

It is difficult to define qualitative research since it does not involve the same terminology as ordinary science. The simplest definition is to say that it involves methods of data collection and analysis that are non quantitative (Lofland & Lofland 1984). Another way of defining it is to say it focuses on "quality", a term referring to the essence or ambience of something (Berg 1989). Other writers point out that it involves a subjective methodology and research as the research instrument (Adler & Adler 1987). Historical-comparative researchers would say that it always involves the historical context, and sometimes a critique of the "front" being put on to get at the "deep structure" of social relations (ibid). Qualitative research most often is 'grounded theory', built from the ground up. Qualitative research can be defined as "multimethod in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter" (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 2).



Qualitative researchers attempt to understand meanings that people give to their deeds or to social phenomena. In other words, researchers see people from the inside. For example, when you conduct interviews with users of a residential care home for people with physical disabilities, you will have pictures of how they feel about their ordinary lives in the home? What do they think about staying or working at the home? What sort of limitations do they notice about their residence? How do they deal with conflicts with care workers and roommates? What tacit rules cover their human relations? Such questions would be very interesting for social workers that want to improve their care homes from the viewpoints of the users.

Ways of collecting data vary in qualitative research and this part of the study will describe three classic methods: interviews, documentary analysis, and participatory observation (Burgess, 1991a).

### **3.3.2 Interviews in qualitative research**

The literature reveals that interviews can have one of three basic structures. They can be structured (closed interview style) in "which all the respondents are asked the same questions with the same words"(Nichols 1991:128). The second is the semi-structured (open interview style) in which the interviewer makes reference to an outline of the topics to be covered during the conversation. This structure will be the main tool used in this research. This third structure is the unstructured (Open-ended or unstructured interviews). This is defined by Nichols (1991:131) as "an informal interview, not structured by a standard list of questions, in which the characteristic of the unstructured interview lies in the individual nature of both the issues discussed and the dynamic of interview (Corbetta 2003). As been mentioned by Robson 2001 that, fieldworkers are free to deal with the topics of interest in any order and to phrase their questions as they think best." This type of structure uses a broad range of questions, asking them in any order according to how the interview develops (Robson 2001).

Interviews can be used in both quantitative and qualitative research, but quantitative research usually used the first type (closed interview) while qualitative research uses semi-structured or open-ended interviews.



Many qualitative researchers have been criticised by critics who have claimed that their research is too subjective, or the number of cases is too small, or that mere talking is never a scientific method, and so on. In qualitative research the interview can be defined as a kind of conversation, but it is a conversation with a purpose. The research interview has the specific purpose of obtaining data relevant to the research. It should focus on a content that is specified by the research objectives (Cohen and Manion 1989). Frey and Oishi (1995:p1) define it as "a purposeful conversation in which one person asks prepared questions (interviewer) and another answers them (respondent)" This is done to gain information on a particular topic or a particular area to be researched. Interviews are a useful tool and can lead to further research using other methodologies such as observation and experiments (Jensen and Jankowski 1991). Also qualitative interview can be defined as mentioned by Corbetta (2003: p43) as "a conversation that has the following characteristics":

- It is elicited by the interviewers
- Interviewees are selected on the basis of a data gathering plan.
- A considerable number of subjects are interviewed.
- It has cognitive objectives
- It is guided by the interviewers.
- It is based on flexible, non –standardised patterns of questioning.

Several writers like Robson (2001) and Powney and Watts (1987) point out that the apparent simplicity of the semi-structured or unstructured interview is deceptive. They argue that a comparison can be made with writing a book - most of us have basic literacy skills but few attain literary art. The researcher totally agreed that from a practical point of view, the interview does not seem as easy as a conversation because it requires certain skills.

There are two basic types of interview techniques used in everyday research. The first is a one-to-one interview and the second is a group interview or focus group study.

Focus groups, like one to one interviews, allow for the collection of preliminary information about a topic. They may be used in pilot studies to detect ideas that will



be further investigated using another research method. Because of this, each interview approach can be used in studying social research study in combination with a further research methodology. However, there are sometimes clear disadvantages because of the potential influence of one or two respondents on the remaining members of the group (Robson 2003). Critics say that a dominant respondent can negatively affect the outcome of the group and that group pressures may influence the comments made by an individual. Although this could occur, it may also be that other respondents' ideas spark new ideas with others, creating a snowball effect. The use of what is known as an extended focus group method, whereby each respondent fills out a questionnaire prior to the focus group discussion expressing their own personal views, limits the problem of being unwilling to express one's opinion in front of the rest of the group (Robson 2003).

The members of a focus group should feel very much at ease with each other before the interview begins - ideally they should perhaps know each other already. The members of the group should be of the same sex and share similar backgrounds in order to rule out any confounding variables. Conversation in a focus group can be either structured or unstructured (often somewhere in between) and can last up to two hours. Discussion is guided constantly by the interviewer whilst the respondents (usually 7-10 of them as it mentioned by Bailey 1996, or 6-8 as mentioned by Kitzinger 1994, but in the experienced view of the researcher, the average focus group is commonly 6-10 members) discuss and express opinions with each other.

### **3.3.3 Interview techniques and process**

This research methodology and design draws, in particular, on the interviews with individuals from the main players in the LSC staff and their working partners. It focuses on their role as a network, how they operate, and on the role of partners to identify the learning needs of the community, the individual and the employer.

The researcher chose to use interviews because it will provide the opportunity to get closer to the interviewees and to interact with them. This, in turn, will allow the researcher to observe the learning process with both the learners and teachers. Also interviews can help the researcher to do the research in the places of learning and meet different kind of learners (on-job learners, off-job learners, and others).



1. The interviews were conducted in a systemic approach. The technique that has been used was a "snowball" technique where the following steps took place:
2. The researcher contacted the colleges or the learning place principles or managers by phone and arranged an interview date and time. In the meeting, the principles and manager identified the course director and tutors.
3. The Interviews were conducted with the course directors, tutors and instructors. During the interview, they identified the group of learners. Some interviews were conducted as a group discussion with tutor and instructor because of their time limitation.
4. The interviews were conducted with the learners as individuals and in groups. This depended on the time. For example, in the college, the interviews were in groups because of the time limits of the course sessions. The researcher sometimes attended the session to see how the learners in the class interact. In other cases, the interviews were conducted individually like in the Basic Skills Class because the different learners were from different backgrounds and interests.
5. In some interviews, the researcher used tape recording because of the interviewees' language, time and difficulty of writing while interacting with the interviewees (See appendix (1) attached copy of the interviews transcribed and field notes).
6. In some interviews the researcher had to write or complete the interview notes after finishing the interview because of the fast speed in speaking of the interviewees. In some cases, it was difficult to understand some expressions and abbreviations. Sometimes, the researcher felt uncomfortable to write interview notes and to interact with the interviewees and give them the space to speak freely at the same time.
7. In some places, like in the Learndirect centres, the researcher went many times to meet the learners, but could not interview them because of the time limit of the learners. However, the researcher got the opportunity to sit and observe the learning process, including how the learner dealt with the computer and how the tutors dealt with the learners. This chance gave the researcher the ground to compare between the computerized and the manual Learndirect centres.



#### **3.3.4. Participant Observation**

Participant observation has been described as "the most intimate and morally hazardous" form of social research (Lofland, 1972). Patton (1990, pp.205-216) has demonstrated that there are variations in observational methods. First, the extent of the researcher's participation can vary from full participation to onlooker observation. For example, the researcher can enter the homes of people with disabilities as care workers or users (full participation), or as onlookers or spectators (least participation).

Second, there is a continuum between overt and covert observations. In overt observations, people know they are being observed whereas in covert observations, they do not. One reason why covert observations are conducted is that people might behave differently when they know they are being observed. There is a lot of ethical discussion about covert observations (for example, Bulmer, 1982), in particular about the difficulties in deciding the extent to which the observations should be overt or covert.

Despite these difficulties, observations are powerful tools for a researcher. For example, a researcher visiting the setting to conduct interviews may unintentionally uncover interesting data and many themes while waiting for interviewees to arrive (Hornsby-Smith, 1993). Even if there is a plan to use only interview data, visiting and observing the setting in which the interviewees are located must help you find important topics around the research. It might bring to light something that nobody has talked about in interviews because it is so familiar to them that they think it unworthy to refer to or they may simply not want to talk about it.

#### **3.3.5 Documentary Analysis**

There are usually many documents associated with the research settings. According to Burgess (1991a), there are three sorts of distinctions among documents. One is made between primary sources and secondary sources. Primary sources have a direct relationship with those who are studied. They include letters, diaries, and reports. Although these documents describe first-hand accounts of situations, it should not accept them uncritically and "it is essential to locate them in context." where they



were produced (Burgess, 1991a, p. 124). On the other hand, secondary sources are transcribed or edited from primary sources, and it should be remembered that they may include errors that the transcribing and editing processes made (ibid).

### **3.3.6 Analysing data in Qualitative Research**

As mentioned above, there are several different philosophical backgrounds to qualitative research. The different bases of epistemology give rise to a wide variety of ways of analysing data, and therefore many authors put forward very general principles or rules for analysing qualitative data.

Unlike in quantitative research, data analysis in qualitative research can occur before the data collection process has been completed. Indeed, Coffey and Atkinson (1996) suggest that in qualitative research data should never be collected without substantial analysis going on simultaneously. Letting data accumulate without preliminary analysis along the way is a recipe for unhappiness, if not total disaster. (p.2)

In unstructured interviews, for instance, analysis of what is being said should start while talking with people. Otherwise, it will not be easy to decide what questions to ask next in the conversation. In qualitative research, doing data analysis while collecting data is called the "principle of interaction between data collection and analysis" (Skipper & Allen, 1993, p.114).

Moreover, it is important to remember that the researcher is not the only person engaging in such a simultaneous analysis. The person being interviewed is also engaging in what Holstein and Gubrium call "indigenous coding" (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995, p.56). That is, interviewees may also analyse what they say while being interviewed. The researchers should take this into their consideration when they start to analyse the interview data (Shaw, 1999, pp.175-176).

## **3.4 UK RESEARCH APPROACH**

The research focuses on provision for three groups of learners, both employed and unemployed:

- Adults on community enrolled in based basic skills courses
- Adults enrolled in workforce development



- Learndirect course participants

At the heart of the research, there is a comparative approach between theory and practical involvement in an in-depth study of policy development and implementation in one Local Learning and Skills Council (LSC) area: Tyne and Wear in the North-East of England. This area has specific labour markets, identities, social history and geographical features which will provide a test of the relative influence of national policy and of local conditions. At the local level, 28 learning sites participated in the research, providing the researcher with a continuing relationship with learners, teachers, tutors, staff and managers of learning. Interviews have taken place at all levels of the Learning and Skills Council (LSC), involving for instance, regional and local policy-maker, the inspectorates, representative bodies for learning providers, employers, research projects and academics. The research aims to test the way in which policy-makers, practitioners, researchers and providers can work together on the construction of effective and inclusive local learning systems. The research carried out the following different type of data.

- 80 interviews were undertaken during 2005 with key partners at regional and local level, including officials from LSC (Local Learning and Skills Council), One NorthEast, the Adult Learning Inspectorate (ALI), University for Industry (UFI), as well as local providers such as Learndirect centre staff, managers and learners. Also interviews covered members of colleges, including principals, teachers and learners, voluntary community organizations, employers and employees, and individuals from awarding bodies and independent research units.
- A documentary analysis of around 70 national, regional and local policy-related texts and reports from 1999 to 2005.
- Research visits to 20 learning sites (9 voluntary CVS, 3 Learndirect centres, 2 colleges, 1 private company, 2 employers, 3 community learning projects)
- Research contact with 8 strategic organizations: UFI/Learndirect, LSC, RSP, One North East, LSC, SSC, Connexions, VONNE, Job Centre Plus, (based on Adult and community learning centers and e-learning centers and work based learning providers).



- Attendance of four seminars. The first one was in October 2004, hosted by the British Council. The second seminar was in Durham and designed for all voluntary organizations working in learning in March 2005. The third was in Newcastle, and it covered the Teaching and Learning Research Programme (TLRP). The fourth one was held in Newcastle and was about the 'Learning City').

### **3.4.1 Data collection and analysis and triangulation**

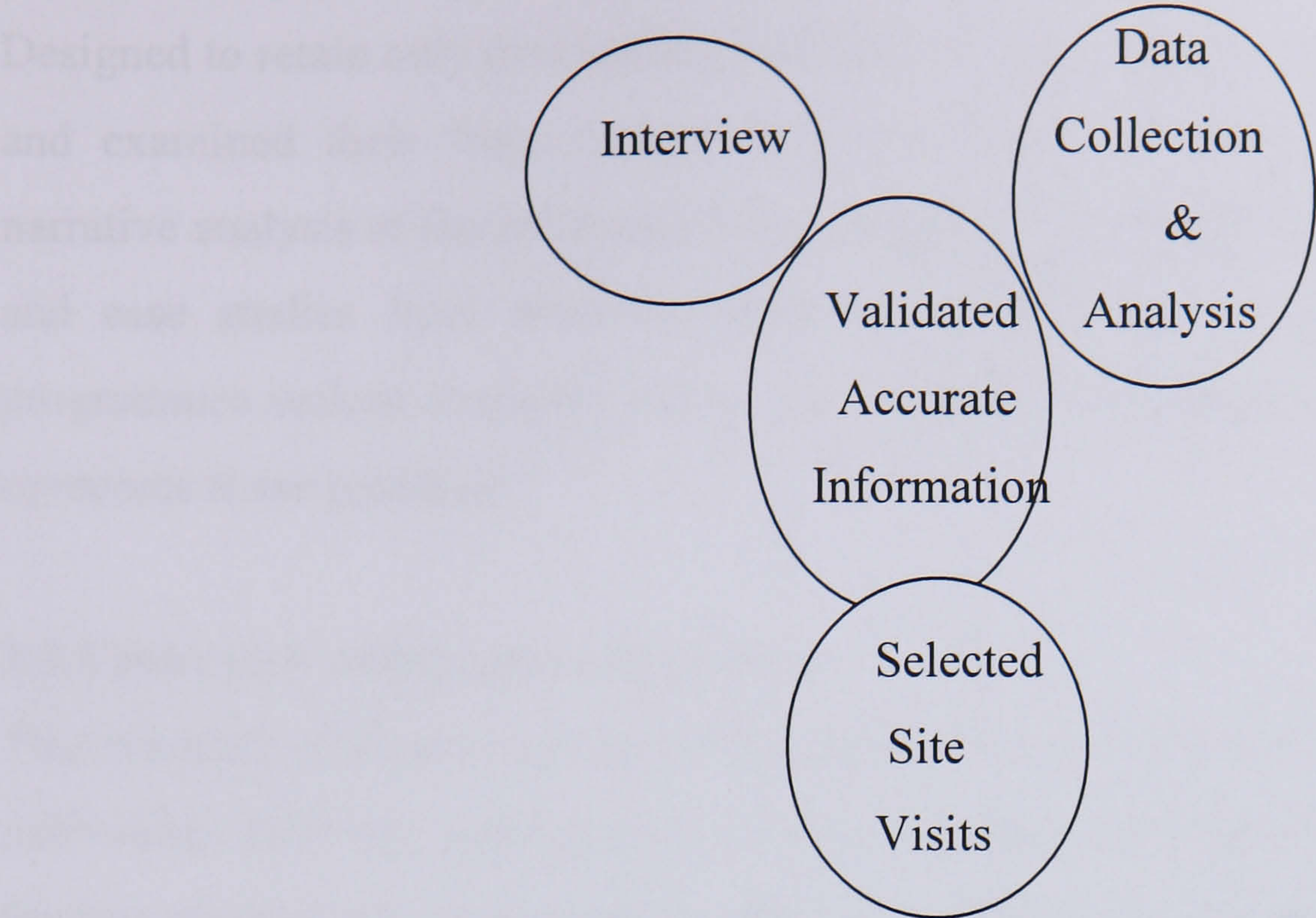
The use of different types of interviews is important because if the data collected using different methods shows the same pattern, that pattern is more credible. This logic supports a well-known qualitative research technique called "triangulation." If data collected from different sources or from different researchers "triangulation" can also be used. Although this technique has received much criticism because it "assumes a single fixed reality that can be known objectively," it is believed to be a useful tool for the qualitative research (Seale, 1999, pp.53-61).

Triangulation of data takes place at a number of levels: within most interviews conducted by the researcher, between the researcher and regional and local policy-makers, officials and local practitioners in Newcastle and the North East, within secondary resources such as reports, implementation plans on publication and on websites, and within learner interviews and providers of learning in the North East and Newcastle. This enabled the researcher to learn from a comparison between the data and from discussions with the supervisor.

- The researcher uses a multidimensional approach that combines:
- Surveys from published and unpublished data
- Interviews of selected key informants at all levels
- Focus group with different stakeholders
- Focus groups with other relevant actors.
- The information gathering process employed interviews, observation surveys and data analysis and was then cross-matched using a triangulation process as the diagram shows below :



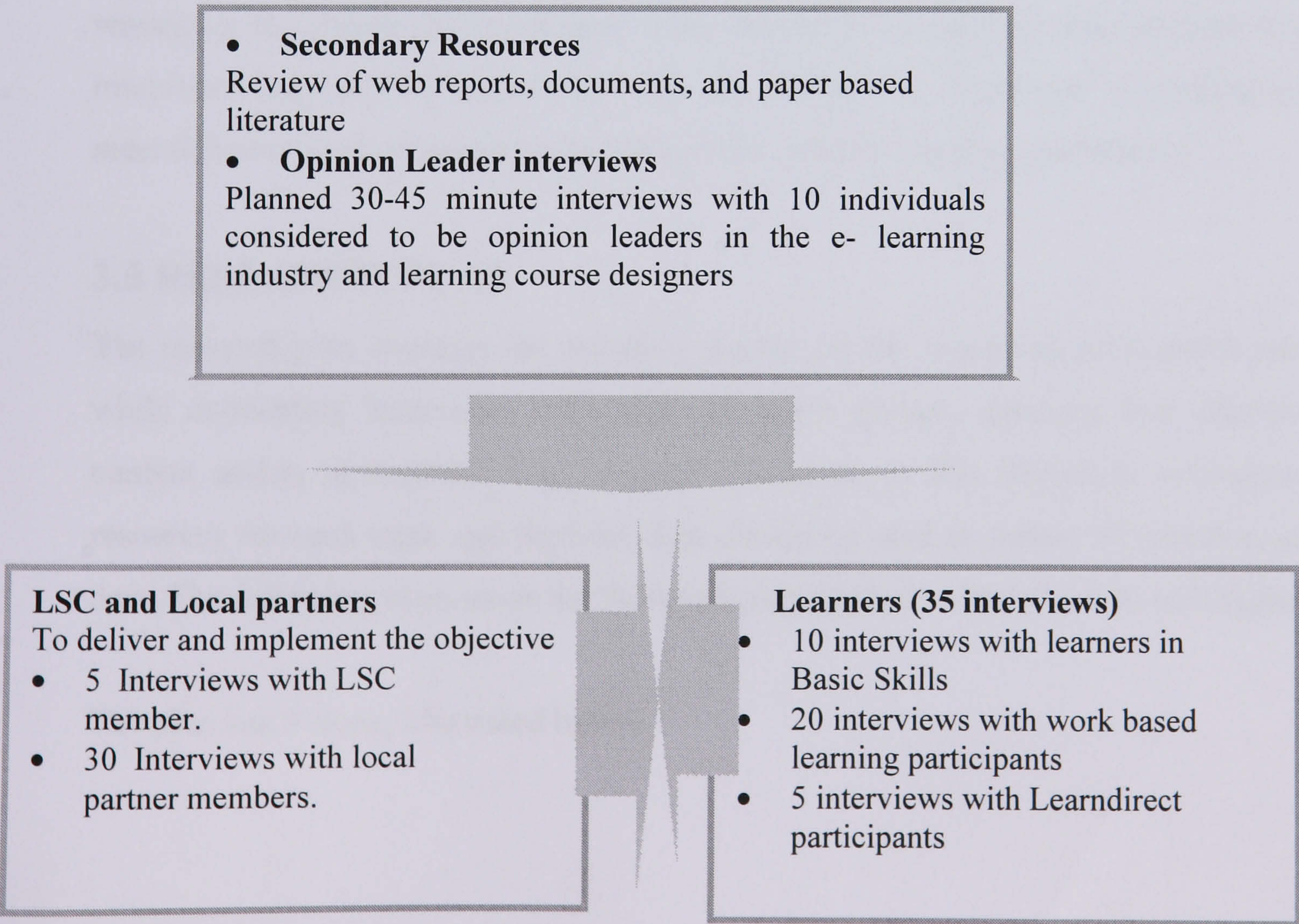
**Fig 3: Triangulation process:**



Source: World Bank Source Book 2003

This is another illustrated diagram from the point of view of the researcher for the first part of the research study, as conducted in North East of England.

**Fig 4: Data collecting diagram**





Designed to retain only overlapping information, the researcher identified major gaps and examined their “root causes” and implications. Consequently, a qualitative narrative analysis of the information was developed in order to derive learned lessons and case studies from multiple initiatives in different contexts. These learning programmes include strengths, threat, and barriers facing the programme and how to overcome these problems

### **3.4.2 Interview techniques and process**

This research methodology and design draws, in particular, on the interviews with individuals from the main players in the LSC staff and their working partners. It focuses on their role as a network, how they operate, and on the role of partners to identify the learning needs of the community, the individual and the employer. In this research, both one to one and focus group interviews were used. The focus group applied in the research especially with learners in the same course or tutor in the same course.

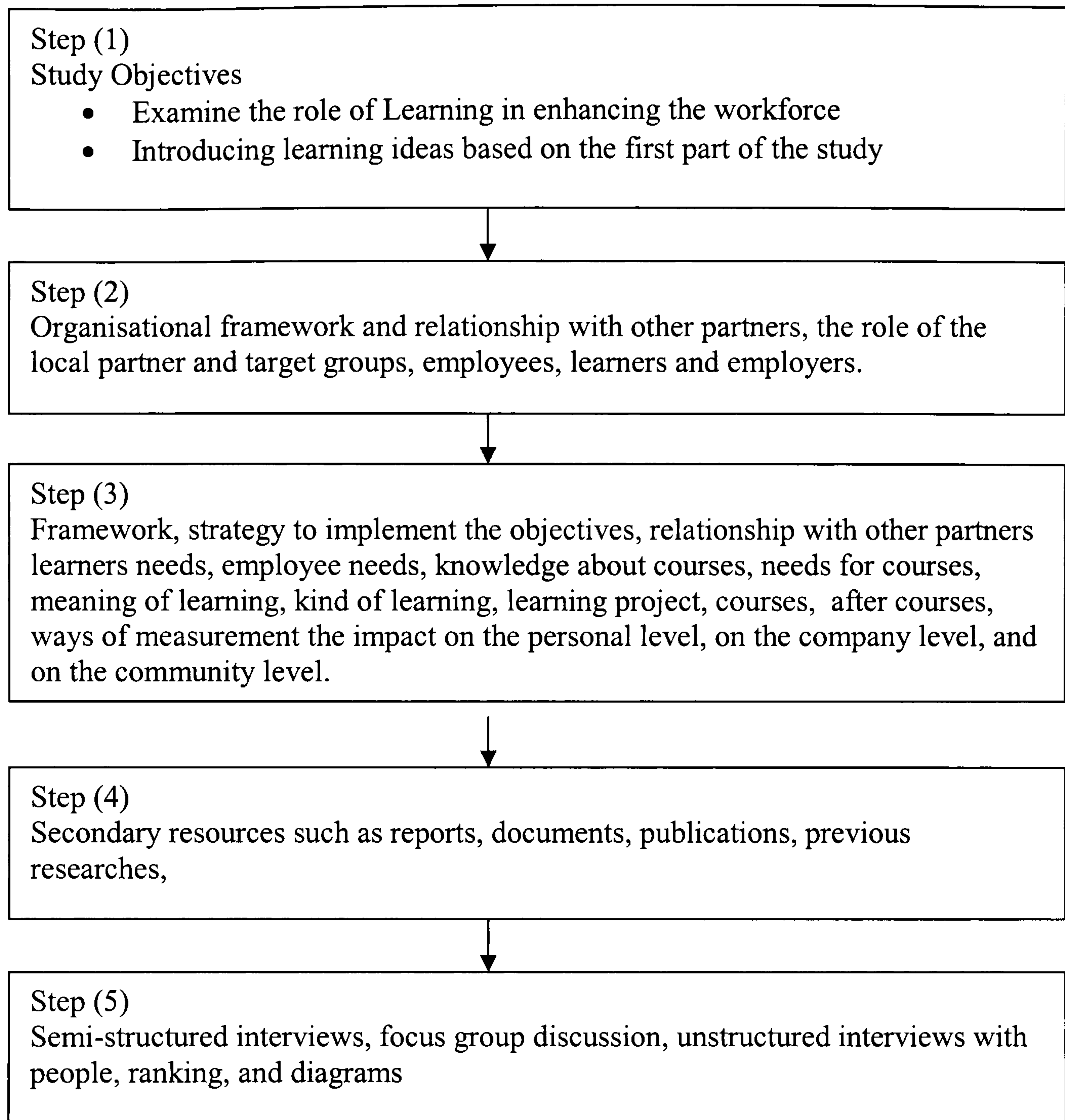
The researcher chose to use interviews because it will provide the opportunity to get closer to the interviewees and to interact with them. This, in turn, will allow the researcher to observe the learning process with both the learners and teachers. Also interviews can help the researcher to do the research in the places of learning and meet different kind of learners (on-job learners, off-job learners, and others).

## **3.5 RESEARCH PLAN**

The research plan contains the reference points for the researcher or research team while conducting interviews with different target groups, ensuring that interview content assists in implementing research objectives. It also illustrates information resources for each topic and the tools that should be used to collect information and data. The following steps show the designed plan applied to both the UK and Egypt.

The plan has 5 steps, illustrated below:





### 3.6 EGYPTIAN APPROACH

The second part of the research study will examine and discuss the Egyptian situation and is dependant on hypotheses, learning lessons and best practices on the national and local level in England taken from research in the first part of the study in England. This will be supported with desk top research and documentary analysis about Egyptian practices. This will assist in drawing up recommended ideas (presented in chapter 8) to be implemented in Egypt.



### 3.7 ETHICAL ISSUES IN THE RESEARCH INTERVIEWS

As Patton mentioned, the very personal conversational nature of interview situations highlights ethical issues of any research or evaluation method (Patton, 1990). Some of these issues have been considered in the research study such as:

*Confidentiality:* Because respondents may be sharing very personal information, it is important to honestly assess how much confidentiality the research can promise. For example, the researcher has to explain before the interview start the nature of the research, its purposes, the research title, and the information that will be presented by the interviewees in the thesis. In addition, it is very important to report to the interviewees include who has access to the data and how owns it.

*Informed consent:* If a study includes the interviewers name, this usually requires that respondents sign a permission form agreeing to participate, after being informed of where information will be forwarded. This research does not include the interviewee's names because the researcher did not write a permission form to the interviewees.

*Promises and reciprocity:* This point deals with the importance of the research. Therefore, the researcher was keen to explain to the interviewees the benefits of the research study to the researcher at the personal level and to Egypt in general. On the other hand, in some cases, the researcher gave promises to some interviewees that some information is not to be reported because of their confidentiality. Therefore, some data was used only for the researcher's own understanding.

### 3.8 STRENGTHES, WEAKNESSES AND CHALLENGES IN THE STUDY

**Strengths:** The researcher has gained a lot of learning and experience at the personal level from conducting this research, which was in a different culture and with a foreign language. This reinforced the researcher's experience in research and in communication skills. It also opened a route for the researcher to new ideas for learning and new and different techniques for learning with adults, especially with the workforce. In addition, the study presented a new idea to be implemented in Egypt.



The researcher used to work as a part of a team to design and conduct researches. However, this time the research as a whole was developed and conducted by the researcher as an individual with great guidance and support from the supervisor, Mr. Stuart Cameron, which reinforced the researcher's experiences at an individual level.

**Weaknesses and limitations:**

- Funding and time limitation: because of the research funding limitation, the researcher was not able to obtain funding to extend the research. In addition, the research had certain time constraints.
- Conducting research interviews with business private sector organisations was very difficult because their time was very limited. Besides, they were not particularly keen to be interviewed.
- Learndirect centres: The Learndirect centres were too busy to provide information or even to meet with the researcher, the researcher made appointments with many centres and visited centres several times but most of them apologised because they were too busy or were not there.
- More research interviews: the researcher was not able to meet all the providers in Tyne and Wear, such as all the colleges working in Tyne and Wear and Learndirect centres, so the researcher chose a sample from each provider to cover the research interviews.
- The study was conducted from March to November 2005 and during this period the Easter and summer holidays placed limits on the research interview schedule as people were away from their workplace.
- Research methodology and information: information collected in the study was dependent on one researcher. However, the researcher used the triangular way to avoid any misleading of the information by using secondary resources and interviewing different partners and learners.

**Challenges:** The researcher faced some challenges conducting this research. These challenges were:

- The topic of the research in England was too wide. In addition, there are regular changes in the organisations responsible for delivering the skills strategy and in the strategies themselves. In addition, there were so many secondary resources.



- The training system in the UK is a little complicated. Therefore, the researcher took time to understand UK system.
- Conducting a research in the North East was sometimes difficult due to the accent of the participants.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has reviewed research methodology used in this project, and examined methods of gathering information, ending with the research plan itself and strengths, weakness and challenges in the research study. The researcher believes that qualitative research is more interest among researchers in different fields. The next chapter will examine and discuss the research field work produced in England nationally and regionally.



# **CHAPTER 4**

## **NATIONAL STRATEGIC VIEW FOR ENGLAND**

This chapter reviews the English Vocational Education and Training (VET) schemes and policy on the national view; it will examine the evolution of the UK's system of Vocational qualification prior to the reforms of the system of the 60s to 2000s. This chapter is divided into three main parts: First, summary of historical background about VET. Second, English strategies to improve the workforce skills. Third, and finally, the different government department responsible to deliver these strategies.

### **4.1 HISTORICAL VIEW OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING (VET) SCHEMES AND POLICY IN ENGLAND:**

In recent years there has been a high consideration of the extent to which the economic performance can be improved by enhancing workforce skills. Increasing the quality of their human resource has been identified as a source of improving the competitiveness (Raggatt and Williams 1999).

#### **4.1.1 VET policy in the 1960s**

In the 1960s, there was a considerable shift in the direction of vocational education and training policy. This shift was directed to the reduction of the unemployed rate through Government Training Centres and a number of other measures. However, the policies of the UK government did not substantially intervene in industrial training. For example around 70 industrial sectors had nationally-agreed schemes for training but these were not recognised in their industrial sectors, and their impact was little related to quality and skills. (Raggatt and Williams 1999).

In 1961 the UK government issued a White Paper *Better Opportunities in Technical Education* which was among other things to improve and boost the craft and technician courses, leading to National Certificates (Raggatt and Williams 1999: p9)  
The 1962 White Paper *Industrial Training: Government Proposals* and the



subsequent Industrial Training Act (ITA) of 1964 indicated the arrival of a new consensus of improving skills and qualifications.

The result of the 1964 ITA was the establishment of a series of Industrial Training Boards (ITB) from the mid to late 1960s (Raggatt and Williams 1999). By the end of 1960s 27 bodies had come into existence, of which the Engineering Industry Training Board (EITB) and the Construction Industry Training Board (CITB) were the most important and long-lasting. Levies were raised from firms in these sectors and this income used to promote and enhance skills training to guarantee an adequate supply of skilled labour. It was not only the employers who were represented on the newly established ITBs, but trade union and educational representatives were also entitled to be members (Raggatt and Williams 1999).

As has been mentioned by Raggatt and Williams, there were two factors explaining the shift from a “voluntaristic ethos” to a more “interventionist” approach in training policy, these factors are as follows:

- First: by the beginning of the 1960s there was a realisation that measures that were necessary to combat the UK’s relatively slow economic growth.
- Second: policy makers recognised that “*Laissez-faire* attitudes on the part of governments had failed to secure skilled labour supply which was adequate for industrial expansion” (Anderson and Fairley, 1983: pp193-4).

In that time some ITBs made considerable progress in reforming training methods in their sectors (Raggatt and Williams 1999). However generally the power of ITBs to affect the scale and quality of training was severely constrained because responsibility for it was largely devolved to individual firms (Senker 1992). Although the ITBs were legally empowered to impose a training levy on companies in their respective sectors, the IBTs had no power over the key decisions, such as control of the contents of training, length, structure, organisation and assessment (Raggatt and Williams 1999).

Moreover, criticism of the IBTs system especially from the small employers who were hostile to the “levy-grant” arrangement induced the incoming Conservative government of 1970 to promise to review its operation (Raggatt and Williams 1999: 8). The Employment and Training Act of 1973 introduced an examination to the



levy-grant mechanism and reduced some of the bureaucracy associated with the work of the ITBs network (Raggatt and Williams 1999).

During the 1960s measures also took place to improve the system of vocational qualifications in the UK, for example in the 1961 the UK government issued a white paper “*Better Opportunities in Technical Education*” which among other things promoted the introduction of craft and technician courses, leading to National Certificates and Diplomas for the latter, to run alongside the already existing National Certificates (Raggatt and Williams 1999).

#### **4.1.2 VET policy in the 1970s**

As mentioned by Raggatt and Williams (1999), following the recommendations of the Haslegrave Committee, in 1973 the UK government set up a Technical Education Council (TEC) and a Business Education Council (BEC). A year later these two bodies come together to form the Business and Technical Education Council (BTEC) putting higher level vocational awards within a single, standard framework. For example BTEC was made responsible for endorsing the National Certificates and Diplomas. Raggatt and Williams stated that “the UK government’s remit for BTEC was to establish a unified system for technical education which did away with the plethora of previous technician level qualifications” (Raggatt and Williams 1999: p10). The Department of Education and Science (DES) attempted to introduce a degree of coherence into the system of vocational qualifications, but there was limited progress due to tensions between City and Guilds and BTEC. (Raggatt and Williams 1999).

#### **4.1.3 VET policy in the 1980s**

In the early 1980s, improving the structure of vocational qualification was under consideration, with more emphasis given to employers needs. An important means of enhancing vocational education in UK and improving the effectiveness of skills training involved the creation of a new government body, the Manpower Services Commission (MSC) which was set as a body independent of government to coordinate the work of the Training Services Division and Employment Services Division of the Department of Employment (DE). In 1987 the MSC played a strong role in promoting vocational education and training in general, and in the reform of



vocational qualifications (Raggatt and Williams 1999). There was a particular concern to improve youth training to the same level as opportunities for adults (Raggatt and Williams 1999). By the 1981, the unemployment rate for those under 25 was 21.4 per cent compared with 2.4 per cent in 1960 (Unwin and Wellington 1999). In 1983 a one year programme the Youth Training Scheme (YTS) was introduced. Initially, intended as a one year programme, it was an 'attempt to consolidate government policy on youth unemployment by putting the emphasis on training' that would provide something for young people unemployed whilst waiting to find a job' (Unwin and Wellington 1999: p7).

There was also an increasing demand from young people to get a higher education. This was shown by the statistics on enrolment and awards in the 1980s. Between 1980/81 and 1990/91, enrolment in higher education increased by 57% and the award of higher education qualifications went up by 52% (Employment Department 1994).

By the mid 1980s, then, notwithstanding some limited intervention by the Department of Education and Science (DES) to promote coherence, the system of vocational qualifications in the UK continued to be characterized by a voluntaristic ethos in which the principle of competition was upheld (Raggatt and Williams 1999). Essential providers on the national level such as City and Guilds and the Royal Society of Arts Examination Board (RSA), were private bodies dependent upon their income from the certification fees (Raggatt and Williams 1999). During the early and mid of 1980s there was a move to reform vocational qualifications initiated by the Manpower Services Commission( MSC).

The UK government in the 1985 established a working group, sponsored by the MSC and the DES, to examine, and make recommendations for the improvement of the system of vocational qualifications in England and Wales (Raggatt and Williams 1999). The *Review of Vocational Qualifications in England and Wales* (RVQ) proposed that establishment of new body, the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ), this NCVQ charged with responsibility of development and overseeing a framework of National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ) (Raggatt and Williams 1999). Moreover this report recommended that an NVQ should be 'a statement of competence, that is relevant to work and intended to facilitate entry into,



and progression in, employment, further education and training, issued by a recognised body to an individual' (Raggatt and Williams 1999).

In the UK one of the major ways to boost skills has been through the amendment of a national system vocational qualification comprising National and Scottish Vocational Qualifications (NVQs and SVQs) and General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs). The most important part of this new system is built upon, or related to, the concept of occupational competence, in contrast to traditional approaches in which an examination of knowledge was the main bases of certification (Raggatt and Williams 1999).

In 1986 following the report of the working group, the UK government issued the White Paper: *“Working Together: Education and Training”* (Raggatt and Williams 1999), which broadly accepted its recommendations. The NCVQ itself was instituted in the autumn of 1986, and it was given the task of reforming ‘the present heterogeneous pattern of vocational qualifications’ in England and Wales. The UK government further accepted the recommendations of the Review of Vocational Qualifications that the new system of NVQ should be clear, coherent, comprehensive and cost effective and centred on ‘the assessment of competence directly relevant to the needs of employment and the needs of the individual’ (Raggatt and Williams 1999).

Also, “in 1986 YTS was extended to more 2 years and its outcomes strengthened to include the achievement of nationally recognised vocational qualifications” (Unwin and Wellington 1999: p7). For young people on YTS the UK government paid a weekly training allowance for the trainees, although as has been mentioned by Unwin and Wellington this “was often below the normal rate being paid for the job that the trainees were doing” (1999: p7). In that time some employers enhanced the training allowance to bring it into their established wage scales (Unwin and Wellington 1999).

The criticism was raised about YTS that some young people spent some or all of the scheme with training providers rather than in the employers workplace. It was also suggested that the employer-led sector was unreliable. The flexible approach of YTS



allowed the employers to have more freedom to run their own variants of YTS and as a result some employer used the scheme as a lengthy selection opportunity. Employers created temporary low-grade jobs in order to benefit from this pool of free labour, and further damage was done to the image of YTS by making young people move from scheme to scheme without finding a permanent job as a result of the temporary jobs (Unwin and Wellington 1999).

From 1987 onward, the MSC assessed the sectoral lead bodies to be responsible for designing the competence occupational standards based on NVQs. Around 160 employer led organisation were established for this purpose. The awarding bodies BTEC, City and Guilds and the RSA (Royal Society of Arts Examination Board) were responsible for the production of qualifications based on the standards. These bodies gave qualifications from NVQ to the NCVQ for accreditations based on four levels. (Raggatt and Williams 1999)

#### **4.1.4 VET policy in the 1990s**

The White Paper *Employment in the 1990s* argued that training must relate closely to the circumstances of each local area. This would require local organisations with local commitment to be able to communicate with and motivate employers, and particularly small enterprises, which were largely uninvolved in national and sectoral training initiatives.

The Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs) were established from 1990 onwards, replacing the Employment Department's local area offices. In Scotland, the Government established Scottish Enterprise and Highlands and Islands Enterprise with responsibility for training, economic development and environmental programmes. These activities were however contracted out to a network of Local Enterprise Companies (LECs) which had responsibility for delivery in their areas (Anie et al 2000)

The role of TECs and LECs was to work in partnership with employers and other local partners to foster economic growth and contribute to the regeneration of their local areas, focusing in particular on the human resource aspects of regeneration. They had specific responsibility for developing the quality, effectiveness and



relevance to the local labour market of the Government-funded training and business assistance programmes (Anie et al 2000).

The UK government training policy with TECs and LECs in the 90s focused on three areas: encouraging employer investment in training, training for young people and training for the adult unemployed. Government programmes were dependent on enterprises for their delivery and part of their finance (Training Standards Council January, 2000).

However, as was identified by Unwin and Wellington (1999) some TECs, for example in the North East of England and in some rural areas, faced a significant problems “trying to find places with employers and many trainees found themselves in a period of limbo, registered with training providers” (Unwin and Wellington 1999:8). Unwin found in her research, that in the core of the training credits concept there was the belief that by ‘arming young people with a plastic card or voucher’ (Unwin and Wellington 1999:9) would enable people to convince the employer to give them a job with training, improving the training quality, and make the training providers compete in empowering their customers (Unwin 1993). Apparently, young people found that the training credit did not help them to find a job or to get more training from the training providers. (Unwin 1993).

In August 1995, overall responsibility for vocational education and training policy in the United Kingdom was vested in the Secretary of State for Education and Employment. This followed the merger of the Department for Education and the Department of Employment to combine responsibility for academic education, vocational education and vocational training (Deakin and Morris 2001).

In 1997 the Labour Party was elected and the new government announced a replacement of previous schemes for workforce training with the New Deal programme, which came into effect in April 1998. The general aim of the New Deal was to ease the process of transition of unemployed individuals from ‘welfare to work’. The scheme for young unemployed people offers 18-24 years olds a range of options for training and work experiences, which include employment with an employer, an environmental task force or a voluntary organisation, in each case



leading to a recognised qualification, or full-time education for a year, leading to qualification at NVQ level 2 or above. The New Deal for those aged 25 or over offers broadly similar help to those in this age group who have been unemployed for two years or more. Other schemes are in place for lone parents in receipt of government benefits, and disabled people claiming incapacity and disability benefits. Employers who take on long-term unemployed under these programmes qualify for range of wage subsidies. For the individuals concerned, failure to participate in any one of these schemes may lead to disqualification from the receipt of social security benefits (Deakin and Morris 2001).

#### **4.1.5 VET policy in the 2000s**

The Learning and Skills Act 2000 established the LSC (Learning and Skills Council) as a single, non-departmental public body with 47 local LSCs organised on a sub-regional basis. Since March 2001 the Learning and Skills Council has been in place. The LSC was an attempt to bring together for the first time into a single learning and skills sector a wide range of learning opportunities in further education, community and adult learning, work-based training for young people and workforce development for adults (DfEE 1999: p23). The LSC has an overall annual budget in excess of £5.5 billion for each year strategy, Its remit covers Further Education (but not Higher Education), government funded training, Sixth Form Colleges, school six forms, adult education, and setting the National learning target (Keep 2002). The LSC key tasks as mentioned by Keep (2002) are:

- To raise participation and achievement by young people,
- To increase demand for learning by adults, and to equalise opportunities through better access to learning;
- To engage employers in improving skilled for employability and national competitiveness;
- To raise the quality of education and training delivery;
- To improve effectiveness and efficiency” (Keep 2002: p4)

The Learning Skills Council is advised by two national committees, the Young People's Committee and the Adult Learning Committee. The Young People's (Learning) Committee is responsible for advising the National Council on the best



means of achieving the National Learning Targets for young people. This includes strategies for increased participation from young people to remain in education until the age of 19. The committee also works alongside Connexions (formerly the Careers Service) to improve employability and personal development. The Adult Learning Committee is responsible for advising the Learning Skills Council on achieving National Learning Targets for adults, to raise attainment and improve basic skills amongst adults. The committee also works closely with the Small Business Service to encourage businesses to invest in their workforce (LSC 2002).

#### 4.1.5.1 The Re-organisation of LSC

In October 2003, after only two and half years of operation, the LSC appointed a new Chief Executive, Mark Haysom, who had previously worked for almost 30 years in the newspaper industry. Several changes followed. Soon after his arrival, Haysom announced in January 2004 the creation of a new regional management team with the appointment of 10 regional directors to simplify the reporting structure that had previously involved regular meetings of over fifty local LSC and central LSC directors. The Regional Directors were also given substantial power, for example: they “can move funding and target around between local LSCs and their providers” (LSC 2004a p:6).

The action was swiftly followed by change to the structure of the national LSC, which from January 2004 was organised around two directorates/ groups - Learning and Skills (with no justification offered as to how it is possible to separate learning from skills, or skills from learning (LSC 2004a: p6). Three directorates/ groups were closed down: quality and standards, strategic marketing and operations- and this led to the second major reduction in staff (between 30-40 percent), particularly at the centre but also in each local LSCs. The whole thrust of the reorganisation was to make the LSCs “more streamlined, manageable and responsive” (LSC, 2004b).

It was at around this point that LSCs personnel were told that they were not just expected to transact business (e.g. manage contracts with training providers as the TECs used to do), but were also expected to transform the culture of lifelong learning. To use the jargon currently circulating within the organisation, the LSCs is



supposed to be "transformational rather than transactional". In practice, it has to fulfil both roles (LSC 2004a : p6).

#### 4.1.5.2 Learning and Skills Council national vision:

In particular, the LSC's vision, as illustrated in the LSC strategy documents (Successful Participation for All 2002), is that by 2010:

- Adults from all social backgrounds will be empowered to engage equally in learning and skills development available to them, in work and in preparation for work.
- Adults from all social backgrounds will be empowered to engage equally in learning that help them contribute as active citizens, utilising and extending their talents to benefit themselves and their wider local community,
- Adults from all social backgrounds will achieve success and satisfaction from their learning, Adults from disadvantaged groups will have the support to access and value the benefits associated with education
- Adults will have an equal opportunity to access education and training, whatever their gender, sexual orientation, religion, ethnic background, disability or age
- Adults will be able, in line with national Skills for Life targets, to acquire literacy, numeracy and language skills to a level that enables them to participate fully in modern life, in employment and in recreational activities
- Adults, particularly those who experience economic disadvantage, will have opportunities to develop the skills to engage with information technology as a tool for communication, for business and for accessing learning.

The objectives underpinning the LSC vision as mentioned above are set out and examined here. It is recognised too that the LSC cannot undertake this task in isolation, so there are recommendations for the development of essential partnership between the LSC, bodies involved in education, training and employment, and other bodies engaged in related social policy.

## **4.2 CURRENT POLICY - THE NATIONAL STRATEGY FOR SKILLS IMPROVEMENT IN ENGLAND**

The following paragraphs provide a brief outline of the LSCs different strategic priorities in setting a national context for work locally. There are 3 main



governmental strategies to deliver, which are: Success for All strategy, Skills Strategy and Skills for Life

#### **4.2.1 The UK Strategies for improving skills:**

##### **4.2.1.1 Success for All strategy**

In June 2002 the UK Government published *Success for All - Reforming Education and Training Strategy* (DFES 2002a). The *Success For All* strategy radically reforms the quality of training and labour supply to meet learners' and employers' needs. *Success for All* has many areas of particular resonance for the widening adult participation strategy. The four goals of the strategy are: meeting needs, improving choice; putting teaching, training and learning at the heart of what the UK government does; developing the teachers, leaders and support staff of the future and developing a framework for quality and success( DFES 2002a).

*Success for All* provides the context for the LSC's work to widen adult participation. It seeks to ensure that employers have the right skills to support the success of their businesses, and individuals have the skills they need to be both employable and personally fulfilled. The key themes are:

- Putting employer needs centre stage.
- Helping employers use skills to achieve more ambitious long-term success, motivating, supporting and enabling learners.
- Enabling colleges and training providers to be more responsive to the needs of individuals and employers.
- Developing a qualifications framework that is more flexible and responsive to the needs of employers and individuals

(LSC 2004c)

*Success for All* is the Government's strategy for the reform of the learning and skills sector. It is fundamental to the achievement of the Learning and Skills Council's vision and underpins the delivery of all local LSCs policies and targets. Through the collective process of strategic area reviews the local LSC priorities are: ensure that the pattern and mix of provision meet current and future priorities; create a more responsive infrastructure that directly engages employers; achieve better choice for



learners; strengthen the links with and pathways to higher education; and develop a coherent post-16 learning and skills sector(LSC 2002).

As part of local LSCs local planning activity, local LSCs agree three-year development plans with each of its providers. These will clearly identify each provider's role in delivering local LSCs vision, and include specific improvement targets to increase learners' success.

The LSC will also work with the DfES Standards Unit in supporting providers to improve the quality of their provision through improving the skills and knowledge of teachers, trainers, leaders and managers and providing teaching and learning resources and delivery models for teachers and trainers. However this thesis shows that some teachers working in learning schemes have no knowledge of the supportive teaching resources, and their teaching skills depend on previous experiences.

#### 4.2.1.2 Skills Strategy

This is a continuing strategy of “*Successful for Life*” strategy, with a greater focus on the improvement of employment skills by removing barriers to learning, supporting more participation for individuals and increasing skills.

The Skills Strategy White Paper: *21<sup>st</sup> Century Skills: Realising our Potential* was published in July 2003 (DfES 2003b). It sets out the government's programme to tackle the skills gap between the UK and its main economic competitors. It commits the government and its key partners to a radical strategy of demand-led provision of skills, recognised by reformed qualification, steered by the needs of employers as expressed through a powerful new skills for business network and given a sharp regional focus through new regional skills partnerships. The whole strategy is overseen at a national level by the Skills Alliance, which was formed in 2003. Under the joint leadership of the Secretary of State for Education and Skills and the Secretary of State for Trade and Industry, the Skills Alliance brings together four key government departments (DfES; DTI; HM Treasury; DWP) with employer and union representatives as a social and economic partnership and links the key delivery agencies, led by the LSC, in a concerted drive to raise skills. The Skills Alliance acts as a high profile champion for the Skills Strategy and ensures that the radical



proposals to transform both the demand for and supply of skills are carried through and achieve their impact (DfES 2005a).

It includes a wide range of interlinked measures to remove barriers to learning and support participation for individuals, as well as re-focusing public investment in those areas of skill provision where it is most needed, namely, a universal entitlement to a first full level NVQ level 2 qualification, (the platform of skills for employability), and in specific shortage areas above level 2 (Level 2 is roughly equivalent to a BTEC first Diploma, or five GCSEs at A-C).

The skills strategy also looks beyond the economic benefits of moving UK individuals and employers up the skills ladder, and encompasses the social benefits accruing from increased skills levels, particularly skills for life (Adult Basic Skills) and skills for employability (LSC 2004c).

The LSC is clearly positioned as a lead partner in the delivery of the Government's Skills Strategy. Central to this is the need to work with employers, individuals and partners to identify current and future skill needs and work, proactively, across the learning and skills sector to ensure these needs are met fully. In order to do this the LSC has agreed the following six priorities for its engagement with the Department for Education and Skills:

1. Level 2 entitlement/Level 3 skills priorities, information, advice and guidance, adult learning .grant and reform of fees/funding;
2. An enhanced business support network to support an effective roll out of a national employer offer, taking forward employer training pilots as well as other skills and business support products and services.
3. Sector and occupational skills, and sector skills agreements.
4. Delivering a regional agenda (regional skills partnerships).
5. Qualifications reform including units and credit.
6. From welfare to workforce development, including work with Jobcentre Plus and Responsive supply (DFES 2002a).

The LSC will continue to implement its workforce development strategy, within the context of the skills strategy and the seven priorities for LSC engagement (LSC



2004c). However, the economic environment in which decisions relating to skills are being taken by the UK government can explain much about an individual's or an employer's behaviour. The present economic environment is a favourable one in which to invest in skills: as has been mentioned in the LSC priority and strategy for 2004/2005 that the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth, though slackening, has been growing steadily at around 2 per cent a year for some time; inflation is low; levels of unemployment are at an historically low level and although the growth in the size of the workforce has slowed, employment levels are also at historically high levels, and all the indicators suggest a positive rate of return to investing in skills (LSC 2004c). one example has been mentioned during this research study in North East England that one of the work based learning courses for Social Care and Early Years enrolled around 100 learners, and on the registration day 150 learners registered to the course (reported by staff in the Newcastle College).

#### 4.2.1.3 Skills for Life

“Skills for Life” is the national strategy for improving literacy and numeracy skills, which focuses resources on improving the skills of those groups where literacy and numeracy needs are greatest and the most impact can be made. In order to do this, LSC is targeting its activities on priority groups including the unemployed and benefit claimants, prisoners and those supervised in the community, public sector employees, low-skilled people in employment, and other groups at risk of exclusion, in order to raise standards and boost levels of achievement. This will involve building on the best of existing provision and developing new, attractive and flexible learning opportunities to draw in people who may not otherwise want to engage in learning (DfES 2002b).

#### 4.2.1.4 The Skills White Paper 2005

The White Paper *Skills: Getting on in Business, Getting on at Work*, published in March 2005, provides an update on progress against the Skills Strategy. The White Paper reinforces the core themes of the Skills Strategy and supports the increasing emphasis on provision that (DfES 2005c):

- is driven by the needs of employers and learners;
- is shaped by skills needs, prioritised by sector, region and locality;
- makes the best use of ICT to deliver and assess learning; and



- gives colleges and training providers greater discretion in deciding how best to respond to needs (DfES 2005c) .
- Building on many of the initiatives outlined in the Skills Strategy, the White Paper proposes a number of new measures. These include:
- £1.5 billion over five years to support providers' capacity to respond to the needs of employers and individual learners;
- national roll-out of Employer Training Pilots, providing free work-based training support up to NVQ Level 2;
- piloting a scheme of subsidised training support up to NVQ Level 3 (Level 3 is equivalent to a BTEC National Certificate, two A levels or a 12 unit AVCE)
- implementing a National Employer Training Programme which is operated through a system of brokers who will work closely with employers to identify and source the most appropriate provision to meet their needs;
- building a national network of Skills Academies to provide specialist training for key strategic sectors;
- increasing the number of Union Learning Representatives from 8,000 to 22,000;
- developing a Union Academy to target the training needs of union members; and
- creating a Framework for Achievement in support of 14–19 reforms through a more coherent qualifications structure

(DfES 2005c).

The Skills Strategy forms a core part of the LSC's agenda. The initiatives contained in the strategy support the LSC's drive to ensure that employers have the most appropriate skills to enable continued business growth and success, and that people have the skills they need to be employable and meet their own personal aspirations.

### **4.3 RELEVANT GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS**

The main department responsible for strategy skills in the UK government is the Department for Education and Skills, which works with other Governmental



departments and Non-Departmental Public Bodies to deliver the skills strategy on a national level. These relationships are shown diagrammatically in Appendix 2

#### **4.3.1 The Department for Education and Skills (DfES)**

The Department for Education and Skills (DfES) was established in 2001 with the purpose of promoting education and skills for children and adults. Its predecessor, the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE), had been created in 1996 by the merger of the Department of Employment with the Department for Education, combining education, training and employment policy within a single department (Coffield, 1999).

The purpose of the Department for Education and Skills (DfES) is "creating opportunity, releasing potential and achieving excellence for all" (DfES 2005 May). The aim of the DfES is to give children an excellent start in education, enable young people to equip themselves with life and work skills, and encourage adults to achieve their full potential through learning.

#### **4.3.2 The Department for Work and Pensions (DWP)**

The Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) is responsible for many groups such as children, people of working age, pensioners, employers, disabled people and their careers. The department is also responsible for the delivery of the government's reform agenda, related to support and advice services for people of working age. There are different sources produced by the department that contain a catalogue of DWP products including leaflets, posters and technical guide. Its aim is "to promote opportunity and independence for all people". The department can provide different kinds of support for employers and individuals, such as funding advice. One of the bodies that the department has formed is Job Centre and Job Centre Plus which assists people in finding appropriate careers and jobs. (DWP 2005).

The DWP has a big role in improving the skills and encouraging employer to improve these skills as been mentioned in the DWP publication that, the main function of DWP are:

- Developing the workforce by highlighting Jobcentre Plus customers as a potential source of employees, organising publicity events, and importantly, designing training routeways for the childcare workforce (DWP 2004).



- Encouraging employers to advertise vacancies with Jobcentre Plus and monitoring performance against this objective by working directly with providers, with Jobcentre Plus colleagues working in employer marketing, and with other external partners such as the CISs, to obtain vacancy listings. CPMs were also working hard with Jobcentre Plus vacancy teams, as there was some concern about the ability of Jobcentre Plus to adequately manage the vacancies (DWP 2004).

And a good example of the DWP role for encouraging the employer in the childcare sector as the sample of the research study, “Encouraging employers to recognise childcare needs by raising the issue of family friendly policies with Field Account Managers (FAMs) and working in an advisory capacity to influence employers’ practice; and in some instances, by direct contact with employers” (DWP 2004).

In 1997 UK Jobcentres used to display job vacancies on printed cards on bulletin boards in local offices. This system was limited by the number of jobs that could be displayed in each location and by the time it took to keep the boards up to date. It was also a chore for jobseekers to wade through the cards to find suitable vacancies. Communication with employers was equally limited. To advertise openings, they either had to call or visit their local Jobcentre. Even then, it could be several days before vacancies were fully distributed to other jobcentres. Frustrated by this the UK Employment Services turned to EDS to help overhaul the system. Electronic Data Systems (EDS) is a leading global technology services company delivering business solutions to its clients. EDS founded the information technology outsourcing industry more than 40 years ago.

The UK government working to improving Public Services and Making a Difference and as part of Government’s extensive welfare reform modernisation programme, EDS worked in close partnership with the DWP to support its radical transformation programme. A programme that sought to amalgamate parts of the UK Employment Services with the Benefits Agency, to create a single, joined-up and more efficient organisation, Jobcentre Plus. EDS designed and deployed a network of touch screen kiosks, known as Jobpoints. These were located in Jobcentres and revolutionised how prospective employees searched for jobs – the days of cards mounted on job boards are now long gone.



Job Centre is an Executive Agency of the Department for Work and Pensions as the diagram shows in Appendix (1). Launched in April 2002, the aim of Jobcentre Plus is to help more people into work, employers to fill their vacancies, and to provide people of working age with the help and support to which they are entitled. An additional purpose of Jobcentre Plus is to contribute to the Government's aim of tackling poverty, reducing unemployment, promoting growth and opportunity, and modernising Government. (DFES 2005d).

#### **4.3.3 The Department of Trade and Industry (DTI)**

The aim of the Department for Trade and Industry (DTI) is to increase UK productivity and competitiveness. It also works in partnership with the Regional Development Agencies (RDAs) the role of which is explained in chapter 5, as is its role in training and support for the employers and employees, and other regional bodies in order to raise regional economic performance, to promote regional regeneration, investment, skills, training, employment, efficiency and competitiveness (DTI 2005).

There are three strategic objectives guiding the DTI's work (DTI 2005 ):

- Support successful business
- Promote science and innovation
- Ensure fair markets

The Job Centres were formed by the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI). Job Centre has a big role to play in improving the workforce skills throughout its local role. Job Centre Plus is responsible for guiding and referring unemployed people to employers and for improving their skills by directing them to improving their skills by receiving training courses. Also Job Centre Plus funds some providers such as colleges and local training providers at the local level to deliver training courses.

#### **4.3.4 Adult Learning Inspectorate (ALI)**

The Adult Learning Inspectorate (ALI) is a non-departmental public body working as a national body, established under the Learning and Skills Act 2000; it began inspecting in April 2001. The ALI is responsible for inspecting a wide range of



government-funded learning, ensuring it is of a world-class standard. This includes (ALI 2003):

- Work-based learning for all people aged over 16
- Provision in further education colleges for people aged 19 and over
- Learndirect provision
- Adult and Community Learning
- Training funded by Jobcentre Plus
- Education and training in prisons, at the invitation of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Prisons

The ALI's role is to inspect and report on the quality of education and training for adults and young people funded by public money. They can also be commissioned to inspect private training provision in the UK and overseas. They work closely with a wide range of partners, including the Learning and Skills Council (LSC), Jobcentre Plus and the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted). The Adult Learning Inspectorate inspects across a vast range of learning provision. This gives the government a unique vantage point and, for the first time, enables a comprehensive view of the standards of education and training across publicly and privately funded provision (Ali 2004).

The work of the ALI can be divided into three strands

- Education and training funded by the Department for Education and Skills (DfES)
- Education and training funded by other government departments
- Privately funded training provision: private companies can commission the ALI to evaluate the quality of their training. They operate on a non-profit, cost-recovery basis.

The ALI consists of a board of nine members and employs around 140 lead inspectors led by 14 inspection managers. Inspectors are recruited from a wide range of occupational backgrounds. All have extensive experience of education and training, particularly in leadership and management. Inspectors and inspection managers are home-based.



## **Conclusion**

This chapter has detailed the attempt of the UK historical background of Vocational and Education Training policy for the workforce to improve workforce qualification and reduce unemployment since the 1960s. The new organisations that the UK government established were to deliver the skills strategy in the UK. These different skills strategies for adults set out to improve workforce skills nationally.

This chapter has given an historical view of the UK and also discussed more recent developments designed to improve the skill levels of the workforce. The next chapter will discussed these issues on the regional level.



# CHAPTER 5

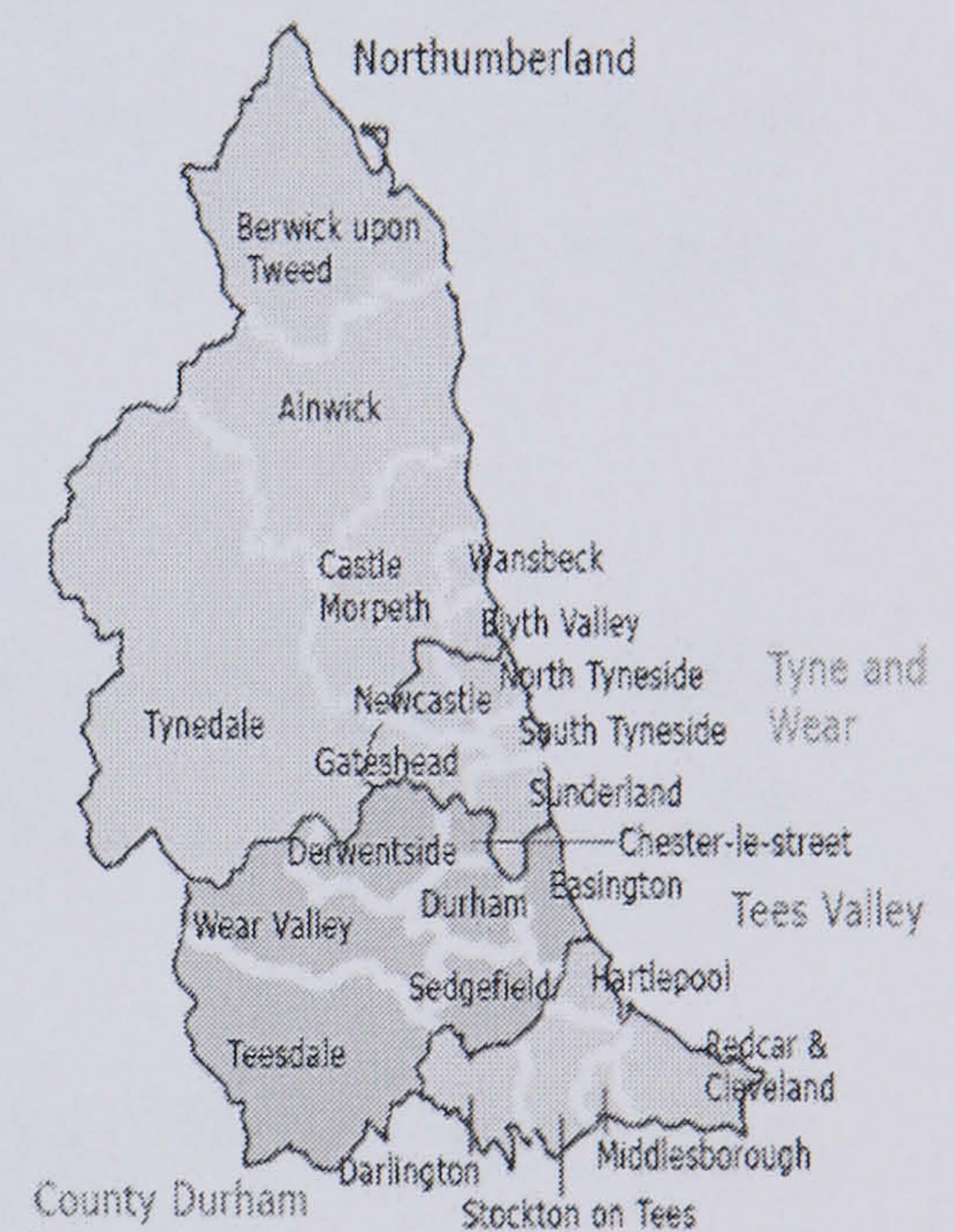
## REGIONAL OVERVIEW

This chapter aims to illustrate information gained from desktop research and interviews conducted by the researcher; in this chapter begins with an overview of the North East region. This chapter also shows the vision and objectives of each Non-Department Public Body (NDPB) and its partners on a regional level in the North East. It will also examine different North East strategies for workforce development and skills.

### 5.1 NORTH EAST REGIONAL VIEW

The North East region of England contains the counties of Northumberland, Tyne and Wear, County Durham and the Tees Valley. The population is an estimated 3.0865 million (2001).

The North East is the smallest of England's nine administrative regions in terms of population and, with the exception of London, is the smallest geographically. The most distinctive feature of the North East for many people is the contrast between the vibrancy of its cities and the beauty of its rural hinterland (RES 2006).



source: RES 2006

The key characteristic of the North East's historical economic performance has arguably been one of relative decline, certainly during the later decades of the 20th Century, as evidenced by the growing 'productivity gap' between the North East and the national average in terms of economic prosperity. This was caused by a variety of complex factors including the capacity of the region to respond to the growth of globalisation and the decline of heavy industry (RES 2003).

More recently however, there are positive signs of improvement. Significant progress has been made in absolute terms over the past decade. Between 1996 and 2004, the



working age employment rate increased from 66.5% to 70.0%. During the same period rates for England increased from 72.5% to 74.6% (National statistic 2005 and annual population survey, Office for National Statistics 2005). Business survival rates have improved by over 7% since 1993, an increase above that seen in any other region. The latest survival rates for businesses set up in the North East in 1999 stood at 65.5%, just 1% below the national rate. (Regional Competitiveness and State of the Regions, DTI & ONS April 2005). In addition, the quality of development in the region has played an important role in increasing levels of participation and contributed toward potential increases in productivity. Evidence suggests that the bidding process for Newcastle Gateshead Capital of Culture led to an increase in visitor numbers, improved visitor perceptions and resulted in increases in private sector investment and sponsorship (REC 2006). The Regional Economic Strategy concludes that a new generation of creative professionals and knowledge workers is being drawn to live in the area which is having a direct impact on the region's economy (RES 2006).

## **5.2 SKILLS ORGANISATIONS IN THE NORTH-EAST (NON-DEPARTMENT PUBLIC BODY (NDPBs) (REGIONAL PARTNERS)**

This section will outline the Non-Department Public Body (NDPBs): the regional and local partners with responsibility for delivering the skills government strategy on a regional and local basis. These partners have strategic, funding and guidance roles. The strategic and funding organisations are:

### **5.2.1 Regional Learning and Skills Council (LSCs)**

On the regional level, there are four Local Learning and Skills Councils (LLSCs), in the North East of England providing skills and business development support to industry, these are: Tyne & Wear, Northumberland, Tees Valley and County Durham. The Local Learning and Skills Councils (LLSCs) are responsible for annual budgets of £100 million and for funding over 100,000 local learners. Their role is:



- To ensure that the needs of local communities, businesses and individuals are met through national Learning and Skills Council funded provision and for delivering national priorities at local level.
- To allocate Learning and Skills Council funding within a national framework with local flexibility, and deploy significant discretionary budgets to increase the quality of provision and support to local initiatives which otherwise would not attract mainstream funding.
- To develop local workforce development plans which encourage employers and small firms to invest in developing their workforce and encourage business to work with SSCs in the development of the sector workforce development plan.
- To work closely with Regional Development Agencies (RDAs), local authorities, learning partnerships, the Connexions service, the Small Business Service (formally Business Links), University of Industry (UFI) and others to ensure coherent action is taken to achieve goals

(LSC 2002a).

### **5.2.2 University for Industry (UFI)/ Learndirect:**

UFI Ltd is the regional organisation responsible for Learndirect, the largest government-backed supported e-learning initiative in the world. UFI was established in 1998 by the current government to take forward the concept of a "University for Industry". Its mission is to use e-learning to boost the employability of individuals and the productivity and competitiveness of organisations (UFI 2002).

UFI's remit from government is to provide high quality post-16 learning in the North East region which:

- Reaches those with few or no skills and qualifications who are unlikely to participate in traditional forms of learning;
- Equips people with the skills they need for employability, thereby strengthening the skills of the workforce and increasing productivity;
- Deliver innovatively through the use of new technologies

(sources: UFI Annual Review 2002-2003).



Regionally, UFI aims to inspire existing learners to develop their skills further, win over new and excluded learners and transform the accessibility of learning in everyday life and work. UFI provides access to a range of e-learning opportunities and e-government services (ibid). Through its network of more than 2,000 Learndirect centres in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and 6,000 UK online centres in England, UFI also runs a government funded national learning advice service which offers impartial information, advice and guidance, either over the phone or via its website, on more than 700,000 courses from hundreds of providers nationwide. (UFI 2004). UFI works collaboratively with individuals, employers and other partners.

### **5.2.3 Regional Skills Partnership (RSP)**

The RSP is a strategic alliance of key British organisations from the public, private and voluntary sectors that have joined together to develop a more dynamic and equitable labour market. The RSP aims to work as one with these organisations in order to increase the competitiveness of UK global and local economies and enable all of the UK's diverse population to benefit from its prosperity (RDA 2004). The RSP's role is to maintain coherence and effective cooperation between all local partners in the UK.

The RSP was established in June 2004 to be responsible for setting priorities and driving action on skills to contribute to the economic success of the regions. Skills North East has an important role in transforming attitudes towards learning and developing a highly skilled workforce to underpin a high performing economy (RDA 2005). The RSP, led by the regional office of the national Learning and Skills Council and North-East Regional Development Agency (RDA), One NorthEast, works on behalf of the UK government, businesses and individuals to plan and deliver joint employment and skills programmes which meet local and regional needs (ibid ). the RSP has many partners from local to national levels. On the national level its partners are the DfES, the DTI, the DWP, the ODPM, the Treasury, the LSC, the SBC, and the HEFC. It has to build its plan according to the National Policy and Priorities for those partners.



On the regional level the RSP works with One NorthEast, the LLSCs, and the Sector Skills Councils (SSCs), and it has to build its regional plan based on the Regional Economic Strategy. On the local level the RSP cooperates with bodies as diverse as the local LSC, Jobcentre Plus and local delivery partners such as colleges, universities, Learndirect/UFI, the voluntary and community sector, employers, the Sector Skills Council, work-based learning providers, and the NEPA.

#### **5.2.4 Sector Skills Councils**

The Sector Skills Development Agency (SSDA) is a national organisation responsible for the funding, support and championing of a new UK-wide network of influential employer-led Sector Skills Councils (SSCs). The Skills for Business network comprises the SSDA and SSCs. The SSDA is a company limited by guarantee and a non-departmental public body. It has its head office in the Dearne Valley, South Yorkshire, and has other offices regionally.

The role of SSDA as outlined in the Working Future 2004-2014 National Report (SSDA 2004), is to underpin and develop SSCs. In brief it will:

- Assist employers in sectors in bidding to become SSCs
- Fund, support and monitor the performance of SSCs across the UK
- Ensure quality and consistent standards across the network
- Provide minimum cover for essential functions in sectors without an SSC
- Ensure skills provision is designed to meet sector needs
- Ensure generic skills are effectively covered in the work of SSCs
- Promote best practice sharing and benchmarking by these sectors
- Provide a website portal for public bodies and individuals to access high quality sector labour market intelligence across the UK

(SSDA 2004)

#### **5.2.5 One NorthEast (Regional Development Agency)**

One NorthEast is one of 11 Regional Development Agencies (RDAs) established in 1998 and currently responsible to the DTI. An RDA is a Non-Department Public Body (NDPBs). One NorthEast is the Regional Development Agency (RDA) covering the North East region of England. Together with regional Partners,



the Agency has created a ten year Regional Economic Strategy (RES), which has led to a diverse range of programmes and initiatives throughout all parts of the region (RDA 2004).

One NorthEast was established in April 1999 to help the people of the North East create sustainable jobs and achieve a higher quality of life. The Agency is responsible to the people of the North East and to the Government. One NorthEast along with all other Regional Development Agencies across England, share a common mission statement: 'To transform England's regions through sustainable economies. One NorthEast is providing the strategic lead, driving the region to deliver massive change and sustainable economic development. One North East continues to drive the development of the North East Regional Skills Partnership (RSP), which is receiving strong support from the Learning and Skills Council. An important element in its delivery is the adult skills pilot working jointly with the LSCs and other partners to provide a more demand led, flexible system of training. Its priorities include accelerating demand for high level skills supported by a new talent fund, creating a step change in the performance of young people development.' The remit of the Agency allows it to use all the resources at its disposal, in both rural and urban communities throughout the North East. One NorthEast has formulated and developed five clearly defined strategic goals (RES 2003):

- To further the economic development and regeneration of the region
- To promote business efficiency, investment and competitiveness in the region
- To generate employment
- To encourage and enhance the development and application of relevant work skills for local people
- To contribute to the overall sustainability of the economy in the UK as a whole

As these objectives indicate, One NorthEast as a regional organisation is responsible for setting up and delivering an economic strategy in cooperation with regional and local partners.



### **5.2.6 Business Link**

Business Link was established in the early 1990s, under overall strategic funding directed from and managed by the DTI, as a local presence across the UK providing support, advice and information managed by business people for business people, it is uniquely placed to identify business support services from across the government, voluntary and private sectors. They are located in the RDA's, as RDAs currently have responsibility for the strategic direction of Business Link. There are 9 regional Business Link offices located as follows: East Midlands RDA, Eastern RDA, London RDA, North East RDA, North West RDA, South East RDA, South West RDA, West Midlands RDA, and Yorkshire & Humberside RDA. Other organisations in the UK include: Business Eye in Wales, Highlands and Islands Enterprise-Scotland, Invest Northern Ireland and Business Gateway (Businesslike 2005).

### **5.2.7 Connexions**

In 2002 the Connexions service was launched and there are now 47 Connexions partnerships throughout the country. Connexions was established mainly for young people to help them in their career choices and prepare them as the future workforce

Connexions Tyne and Wear is made up of two former North East career services: Tyneside Careers and Sunderland Careers. It covers the whole of Tyne and Wear in the North East which includes Sunderland, Newcastle upon Tyne, North Tyneside, South Tyneside, and Gateshead. Connexions provides high quality career advice to young people with additional support. Career advice and guidance is now only part of the many services that Connexions can provide to young people aged 13 - 19 (up to age 25 with special needs). The role of 'Career Adviser' has been replaced with 'Personal Advisor' (or PA) to reflect the many additional services they now provide. Connexions provides advice on career planning, career choices, career change, training for a career and preparing for a career. Connexions Tyne and Wear can also help with a job offer or job offers, job search, finding jobs, employment, and apprenticeships and training. They also provide support for any young person who needs it (Connexion 2005 ). And in the new strategy for 2006, they will be given a new role to assist adults with career advice and training.



Connexions helps young people prepare for adult life by offering advice and support on a wide range of lifestyle issues, including: education, training, careers, employment, jobs, and health and personal development. Connexions can also help with other important issues such as problems at home, school or work, drugs, relationships or money. They can provide extra help and support to young people who need it. Every Connexions Centre and secondary school has a Connexions Personal Adviser who is on hand to talk about any of the above issues or related concerns. The role of the Personal Advisor is to help young people think about their career and plan for it, while guiding them towards solutions or assistance available according to their needs.

### **5.3 REVIEW OF THE REGIONAL ECONOMIC STRATEGIES (RES) FOR THE NORTH EAST**

Improving the economy and meeting the world challenge by increasing the level of economic participation within the North East depends upon creating a strong economy that generates economic opportunities. Increasing the level of participation in employment within the region is the most significant concern in terms of achieving sustainable and inclusive, economic growth. As pointed out in the REC 2006 “if employment levels were at the average level for the UK, the North East would have another 80,000 people in work which means 5% of North East’s workforce” (REC 2006:99).

Within the North East there are numerous regional strategies and plans produced by key regional bodies. Two of the core strategies, the Regional Economic Strategy (RES) and the Regional Spatial Strategy (RSS), are required by the Government. The first part of the research study in the North East of England focuses on the RES. The RES is prepared by the Regional Development Agency, One NorthEast. The RSS is a statutory document drafted by the North East Assembly and submitted to the Government for final preparation and publication.

These strategies and plans provide the guidance that the North East needs to chart its course over the coming decades. They cover the economic life of the region, the education and skills of its people, and the region’s land, roads and environment.



The RES and RSS are the lead delivery strategies for the region, with the Integrated Regional Framework providing a key set of objectives and principles to guide them and measure progress (RDA 2003).

In 2001, 17 percent of households in the North East were classified as “workless” compared to a UK average of just over 11 per cent. As demonstrated by Oxley (1999) the vast majority of the “continuously poor” in the UK live in jobless (workless) households. Poverty, economic exclusion and unemployment are directly related and find exaggerated expression in the North East. Furthermore, economic exclusion costs the public purse dearly. In 2003, out of a total public sector expenditure of some £13.2 billion pounds in the North East, around £5.4 billion, namely 41 per cent, was spent on unemployment and incapacity benefit (ICRRDS 2005).

In this chapter the research will review the Regional Economic Strategy for 2003-2006 and the Regional Economic Strategy for 2006.

### **5.3.1 Regional Economic Strategy (RES) view for North East in 2003-2006:**

During the last ten years the UK Government and local municipal authorities have focused increasing on the role of education in underpinning and driving local strategies for regeneration. The need to drive performance in education institutions has become a major feature of educational policy, as have policy issues involved in using local funds, as well as government intervention, to underpin regeneration. Changes in traditional employment have provided challenges to schools, further and higher education institutions, and employers. Within the North East there are rural areas in which transport is a major problem for many people and, in addition, there are urban communities suffering from the decline and exodus of major employers. Both present challenges for educationalists and employers alike (RES 2003-2006).

Interdependent problems that this government is attempting to solve are education, jobs, crime, health and housing. The four related themes of the programme in the UK are regeneration, competitiveness, sustainable development and social exclusion. The economic strategy of the regional programme themes are: building a diversified



knowledge driven economy, establishing a new enterprise culture, building an adaptable, highly skilled workforce, placing universities & colleges at the heart of the region's economy, meeting 21<sup>st</sup> Century transport, communications and property needs and set a target to create, 100,000 new jobs over 10 years (RES 2003-2006).

The mission of the Regional Economic Strategy (RES) for the North East as stated in government documents is: “to work with regional partners and local people to maximise competitiveness and prosperity in the region, and to support integrated policies for an inclusive society”. (The Regional Economic Strategy 2005: p99). The main objectives of the RES 2003-2006 are to: support economic development and social and physical regeneration; improve business support investment; enhance skills; support lifelong learning; and encourage sustainable development.

The Regional Economic Strategy (RES) is a 10-year plan for the social and economic rebirth of the North East of England. Its six interdependent objectives lay the foundation for real and lasting change in the region. The strategy aims to provide the people of the region with education and skills to become the workforce the entrepreneurs of the future. It aims to attract national and international students to the region's universities and colleges, while recognising and developing the significant role these learning institutions play as a central part of the North East economy. It aims to change the physical environment and infrastructure to provide a better quality of life and real tangible reasons for businesses to want to locate grow and prosper in North East of England. All aspects of the North East's activity are fully focused on delivering the objectives of the Regional Economic Strategy.

### **5.3.2 Regional Economic Strategy (RES) view for the North East in 2006:**

The Regional Economic Strategy (RES) sets out how UK governmental bodies and local partners plan to deliver greater and sustainable prosperity to all the people of the North East over the period to 2016. The goal of sustainable development is “to enable all people throughout the world to satisfy their basic needs and enjoy a better quality of life without compromising the quality of life for future generations” (Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (2005)).



The RES is a strategy for the sustainable, inclusive economic growth necessary to underpin the fulfilment of the overarching vision for the North East region. The shared vision will promote greater alignment across regional strategies and policies, and will facilitate a greater understanding of the kind of regions the UK government want in the future (RES 2006).

The skills vision of the UK government as presented in the RES 2006 suggested that, by 2010, 80% of new jobs will be in higher level occupations, i.e. those most likely to be filled by people with higher level qualifications. The basic skills required for most jobs in manufacturing and services are likely to rise. It is estimated that by 2010 around 95% of all new jobs will be at Level 2 or above.

This Strategy will also contribute to national policy objectives. Regional Development Agencies (RDAs) are one of the main mechanisms through which the Government seeks to increase the economic competitiveness of the UK and reduce regional disparities. This Strategy seeks to achieve the Government's Public Service Agreement (PSA) target for the North East<sup>2</sup>. In so doing, it will deliver on the five key productivity drivers identified by the Department for Trade and Industry (DTI), i.e. investment, innovation, skills, enterprise and competition. In addition, sustainable development principles will underpin the goal of economic growth and enable the region to contribute to the Government's PSA target 1<sup>3</sup>. The RES will play an important role in ensuring that where possible, the economic regeneration of the region positively promotes environmental sustainability. Through this approach, it will ensure that the North East pursues a more sustainable growth pathway and maintains its indigenous advantages, such as relatively low congestion levels and high quality environment. In turn, individual sections within the RES will contribute to the achievement of Departmental targets and aspirations, for example, those set out in the Government's Science Strategy, the Energy White Paper and the Sustainable Communities Plan (RES 2006).

---

<sup>2</sup> The PSA target is: "To make sustainable improvements in the economic performance of all the English regions by 2008 and over the long term reduce the persistent gap in growth rates between the regions, demonstrating progress by 2006". PSA Target 7: Regional Economic Performance - DTI/ Her Majesty's Treasury (HMT)/ODPM joint target (2002).

<sup>3</sup> PSA 1 Target is: "To promote sustainable development across Government and the country as measured by achieving positive trends in the Government's headline indicators of sustainable development"



What is very clear is that there is a difference between RES 2003-2006 and RES 2006 in relation to skills. Firstly, in the recent RES report there is a very clear statement and indicators related to solving the barriers facing learners, as mentioned in chapter 1 and chapter 7, such as "employability, health, travel to work, childcare and other caring responsibilities, attitudes to enterprise, institutional, low wages, unemployment, culture and inequality of opportunity" (RES 2006: 101-102).

Secondly, the relationship between the RES and other strategies is made very clear. The RES complements and contributes towards a number of other regional strategies, including the Regional Spatial Strategy (RSS), Strategy for Success, Regional Transport Strategy, Regional Cultural Strategy and Regional Housing Strategy, with the Integrated Regional Framework underpinning and helping to integrate all of them. The RES seeks to provide the economic context and helps to inform each of the strategies of the economic contribution that they can make. In particular, the RES Strategy is being produced in parallel with the Regional Spatial Strategy. The RES aims to provide the context for the contribution that the RSS could make to the region's economy through the appropriate supply and location of land suitable for housing, economic development and regional transport priorities. Work undertaken to identify alternative 'scenarios' of future economic growth has underpinned both documents. This gave clear consideration to the role of the RES in setting out how the UK going to deliver greater prosperity to the North East, with the UK government adopting an aspirational aim to reach the level of 90% of the UK average (GDP) Gross Value Added per head by 2016. This allows for some flexibility while remaining ambitious (RES 2006).

Thirdly, RES statistics indicates economic improvement in the North East show that between 1996-2005 the number of jobs in the region rose significantly - from around 1,054,000 to 1,116,000 (RES 2006 cited on Total Civilian Workforce Jobs, ONS (April-June 2005)). In skills and workforce improvement, the statistics show that the proportion of economically active people qualified to at least Level 3 has increased more than the national average increase (In the North East, Level 3 skills increased from 40.6% in 2000/01 to 45.2% in 2004/05, while England as a whole saw an increase from 45.4% to 48.7% over the same period (REC 2006)), and the proportion of economically active people with graduate level qualifications (Level 4+) has also



increased (Level 4 qualifications increased from 21.2% in 2000/01 to 24.6% in 2004/05 in the North East, which compares to a rise for England over the same period from 26.5% to 29.3% (REC 2006) . In addition, since April 2001, 113,100 adults in the North East have improved their literacy and numeracy skills. Of these, just under 50,000 have obtained Key Skills Qualifications.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter started with an overview of the North East region. It has explained two main parts of the Non-Department Public Bodies (NDPBs) regional view, and explained how they work on a regional level to deliver the RES and skills strategies, It has reviewed the regional economic strategies (2003-2006 and 2006 for the North East region), and how the government has overcome some barriers facing learners and the support the government provides. However, are the learners aware of this support? In Chapters 5 and 6 there will be a greater explanation of the local view established through research and field work in the Tyne and Wear area.



# **CHAPTER 6**

## **LOCAL CASE STUDY OF LEARNING STRATEGIES IN TYNE AND WEAR**

The objective of this chapter is to give an overview of the field work conducted in England. It is divided into seven main elements which are:

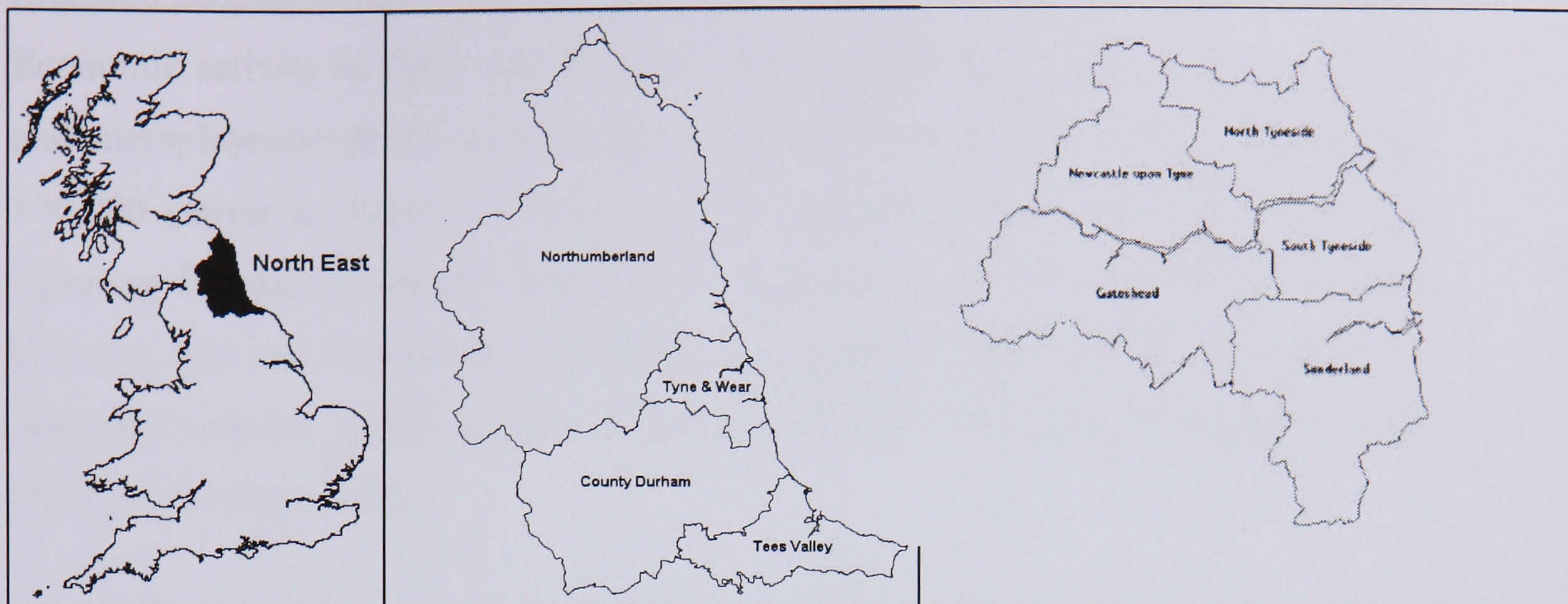
1. Area profile
2. Target group for England research
3. Identifying learning needs in Tyne and Wear
4. Learning needs and issues in Tyne and Wear
5. Community needs
6. Sector and employer skill needs
7. LSC priorities for Tyne and Wear
8. Providers on the local level

This chapter will give an overview of the research study target area and group. It will also examine the role of different departments and organisations on the local level in identifying learning needs. The employer and community needs will also be presented in this chapter, and be compared with priorities set by the LSC. Much data presented in this chapter is based on the research of many publications related to strategic approaches to skills improvement in Tyne and Wear. In addition it will present the local providers for learning view on learning at the local level, especially in Tyne and Wear. In addition it will see how this compares and correlates to the economic strategy for the North East.



## 6.1 AREA PROFILE (Tyne& Wear

**Fig 5: Location of North-east England and Tyne and Wear**



Source: Newcastle City Council 2005

Tyne and Wear is a metropolitan area of some 1.1 million people located in the North East region of England. It covers some 54,014 hectares which is only 6% of the North East region's land but contains 48% of the region's population and houses 43% of the region's working age population ([www.aimhigher.ac.uk](http://www.aimhigher.ac.uk)). 47% of jobs in the North East are based in the area and more people travel into Tyne and Wear to work and learn than travel out (LSC 2004d). The number of people from minority ethnic communities is small but growing, currently accounting for 3.2% of the population (national average 9.1%). The number of refugees and asylum seekers is also increasing (National statistic 2005).

The conurbation straddles the River Tyne to the north of the county and smaller River Wear to the south. The county area is split into 5 administrative areas. The City of Newcastle upon Tyne and North Tyneside lie on the north bank of the Tyne, while Gateshead and South Tyneside lie on the south bank. The city of Sunderland straddles both sides of the River Wear. Together they form the county area of Tyne and Wear which has ceased to exist as a statutory administrative tier (Newcastle City Council 2005). Although there are pockets of affluence in the area, these are among the most deprived areas in England. 50 of the 113 wards in Tyne and Wear are among the 10% most deprived wards in the country (National Statistic 2005).



Social deprivation is a key issue in the area with a quarter of the local population (265,000 people) living in areas ranked among the 10% most deprived in the country. Economic activity in Tyne and Wear (73.4%) is below the national average (78.5%) and unemployment (6.9%) remains above the national average (4.9%). An estimated 170,000 people in Tyne and Wear are economically inactive. 71,000 people were claiming Incapacity Benefit (Social Science Information Gateway 2005). Statistics between July and September 2005 show that unemployment has declined in recent years but remains slightly higher in Tyne and Wear (5.4%) than in England (5.3%) (National Statistic 2005).

A higher than average proportion of people work in occupations with relatively low skills requirements:

- 23% of employed people work in low and unskilled manual occupations (20% in England) (Social Science Information Gateway 2005).
- 33% work in managerial, professional or technician level occupations, (40% in England) (ibid).
- Of the 671,000 people of working age, 180,000 (27%) are not qualified to Level 2 (ibid)
- More people of working age have poor literacy and numeracy skills (27.5% and 29% compared to the national averages of 16% and 21%) (ibid)
- More people work in occupations with low skills requirements (23% compared with the national average of 20%)(LSC 2004b)
- Fewer adults of working age are in employment (68% compared with the national average of 75%)( National Statistic 2005).
- Net recruitment demand in Tyne and Wear is projected to equate to over 170,000 job opportunities between 2002 and 2012 (Social Science Information Gateway 2005)

## **6.2 TARGET GROUP FOR THE RESEARCH IN TYNE AND WEAR**

Research interviews were carried out with learners and learning providers In Tyne and Wear. 80 interviews were conducted in all, including: ); 4 interviews with local



LSC staff members; 42 interviews with representatives of learning providers, and 34 interviews with learners aged over 19 and qualified under level 2 (as defined in the diagram below):

**Fig 6: Qualification levels**

Certificate	GCSE	National qualification	NVQ level
Levels	A	Level 2	NVQ 2
	B		
	C		
	D	Level 1	NVQ 1
	E		
	U		

The learner interviewees are conducted with basic skills learners, Learndirect learners and work based learning learners taking part in courses at colleges focusing on the Social Care and Early Years sector. Some of those learners are employed and some are in placements for a job allocated by the job centre. They have taken courses to improve their qualification and skills toward Level 2 which will enable them to fill the job they are currently on placement for in the Social Care and Early Years sector.

**6.3 THE ROLE OF DIFFERENT PARTNERS IN IDENTIFYING LEARNING NEEDS**

The starting point of effective adult learning programmes and projects is a thorough understanding of learning needs. The UK government introduced a 10 year regional strategy which has led to a diverse range of objectives, projects, programmes and initiatives throughout the region.

This part of the research examines how the local partners in Tyne and Wear work together or independently to identify learning needs in different areas and deliver different, appropriately customised learning projects.



### **6.3.1 Learning and Skills Councils identify learning needs**

#### *How do Learning and Skills Councils identify learning needs?*

Research interviews with LLSC staff and regional LSC staff shows that LLSC's have local partners such as One NorthEast, SSC, Jobcentre Plus, University for Industry (UFI), VONNE and other community development organisations on different levels.

Most interviewees agreed that the LLSC is a strategic funding agency, not a delivering agency for learning. The LLSC has partners to identify learning needs, and has different partners to deliver the learning needs. LLSC identifies the learning needs based on market research on the national level working closely with the SSCs (Sector Skills Councils) and the SSDA (Sector Skills Development Agency). There are 25 Sector Skills Councils (SSCs) in place, providing a new voice for employers in identifying skills priorities for each major sector. SSCs are developing sectors skills agreements, which reshape public and private skills investment. Sector Skills Agreements are developed based on the needs required in each sector. Agreements led by the SSC need to drive improvements in businesses performance, as well as declare the action they will take to meet these needs and how they will collaborate with providers of education and training, so that skills needs can directly shape learning provision. Despite the sector skills agreements being focused on national issues, delivery involves regional and local dimensions. In each sector development learning and training activity in Tyne and Wear is driven by the LSC and its partners, and is reviewed to meet the priorities of emerging sector skills agreements. Based on these needs the LSC forms the strategy and this strategy passes to regional and local levels.

However, the research interviews show that some employers are not aware of their sector agreement and the SSC does not contact those employers. As a result of this the understanding of needs has been obtained from a national perspective, and has not included all of the local perspectives required to meet real employer needs.

On the national level the LSC has relationships with 23 other partners in different sectors to identify the national needs for the market, employers and for the community to match with training provisions and number of unemployed. When the



LSC introduces the strategy on the regional level, it accommodates the regional environment with respect to needs and circumstances. The local level introduces the implementation plan and proposals to deliver the one year (which is operation plan) or 5-year (which is the strategy for the next 5 years) strategy with respect to the local needs. The sequence of developing and implementing the strategy is:

October to December	National level strategy
January to March	Regional level
April to March	Delivery of the strategy

The national budget for implementation of the strategy is £9bn, of which £500 million is designated to the North East. 40% of this budget is for Tyne and Wear. E-learning receives a small amount of this budget, according to LLSC staff.

**6.3.2 UFI/Learndirect identify needs and develop Learndirect courses**

*How does the UFI/Learndirect identify needs and develop Learndirect courses?*

Interviews were held with 4 people working in UFI regional and local offices (Learndirect). The interviews show that the UFI, as a producer of Learndirect courses, addresses the learning needs identified by the LSC and its partners on the national level. In addition, UFI/ Learndirect market research teams conduct online research and allow stakeholders such as regional teams, centres and learners to contribute ideas for course development. Furthermore, they carry out several research projects with existing and new learners which cover some elements of course requirements.

Generally, as mentioned by the productivity team for UFI/Learndirect, UFI/Learndirect courses are designed centrally. Courses tend to be developed on a national or sector basis rather than a regional basis. These courses set out to achieve UFI/Learndirect targets set by the Learning and Skills Council (LSC).

It has been pointed out by the productivity team (i.e. the team responsible for designing the learndirect courses at the National level) for UFI/Learndirect that a couple of years ago in the beginning of the 2000s UFI/ Learndirect provided over 900 individual courses. Now something between 4000 to 5000 exist. The course development times depend on the length and complexity of the course. Some courses



take 10 hours to develop, while other development times may be up to 6 months. UFI carry out usability testing, and technical and quality assurance testing, which can add between 4-8 weeks to the process. The main areas of courses development are ICT, Skills for Life (ESOL, Literacy and Numeracy), business and management, automotive, retail, health and care, multimedia, modern languages, and environment.

If the courses are designed to deliver a qualification, the learning outcomes for the qualification are the starting point for the production team. The courses must deliver the knowledge to enable learners to achieve their chosen qualification route. If the course is funded by the LSC, there are also design issues in the course which assist tutors to show learners are meeting their outcomes and to provide evidence of achievement. If the course is not funded, the productivity team have more flexibility in terms of design and they seek feedback from their Learndirect centres network, businesses, sector skills council and potential learners themselves about the design and content of the course. Each course has a Tutor Guide which outlines the role of the tutor. Certain courses do not really require subject-specific support and therefore the role of the facilitator is mainly pastoral. Many courses do require specific feedback from a qualified tutor and there is normally a guide for each course which provides the tutor with support material to help them fulfil this role. Although all Learndirect courses are popular, IT courses have the highest enrolment numbers.

The research observations and interview data show that some tutors have no knowledge that course guidance is available, and while some knew of its existence and that it should be referred to during courses, they did not use it - maybe they considered it as overly time consuming!

The Regional Team in the North East has the option of putting together a business case to develop courses for their region, provided they can make sufficient financial justification. However, for unfunded<sup>4</sup> courses, including courses for the SME market, UFI/Learndirect can respond much more actively to requests from their centre networks. They provide the principle feed of information to UFI/ Learndirect

---

<sup>4</sup> Unfunded courses include those that do not meet the LSC targets and where learners are not eligible to enroll for the course



relating to unfunded course requests to produce or adapt courses according to the recent needs related to them.

However UFI/Learndirect has its own methods of identifying learning needs and adapts, removes or initiates courses in response to what these approaches to identifying learning needs are:

- By demand model - on the website of UFI/Learndirect they ask for suggestions from people about how to make courses available more widely.
- Through centres that deliver Learndirect courses - because they directly contact learners, they know what the actual learners need
- By other contact with different groups working closely with people or employee requesting actual learning courses.

Three of the most significant findings of the research related to UFI/Learndirect are:

- Firstly, there is no exact number of e-learning courses, this was shown by interviewing people who work in Learndirect centres or in UFI productivity teams - some of them mentioned "there are thousands and thousands of courses".
- Secondly, some of the Learndirect centres use the Learndirect materials courses as a part of a blended solution for some training based classroom courses.
- Thirdly, although many Learndirect courses are not designed explicitly to enable IT literacy in learners, this was still often seen as a result. For example, one of the learners was not able to switch the computer off before starting his course, but after nine months had gained Electronic Software and Licensing qualifications.

### **6.3.3 providers identify learning needs**

*How do providers identify learning needs?*

There are various providers for learning in the North East. In Tyne & Wear area specifically however, the research contacted four main providers: Learndirect centres, Community Voluntary Services (CVS), Colleges, and Employers.



#### 6.3.3.1 How do Learndirect centres identify learning needs?

Interviews with 8 interviewees were conducted in UFI/Learndirect centres. These centres work with 2 categories of people – English speakers and those requiring ESOL courses (non English speakers and refugees). The centres identify learning needs in different ways:

An initial formal interview is held with learners by trained UFI/Learndirect workers, lasting around ½ hr, to establish what the learner's needs are. The interview prepares the learner for the initial assessment of their basic skills. People who are non English speakers (ESOL) complete a computerised basic skills needs test to identify their standard of speaking, listening, reading and writing in English. If the learner has a low level of English and basic skills they send him/her to college first to take courses in basic skills before returning to the centres to start Learndirect courses. If he/she is of an intermediate level in basic skills ESOL adapted courses can be taken to assist with life in England. For competent English speakers, after completing the initial assessment Learndirect staff identify courses the learner needs, according to the learning map, to reach level 2 qualifications.

At the end of course learners complete an evaluation form, and a special section asks what courses the learner would like to undertake, or suggestions for new courses.

In addition a learning map is produced that illustrates areas in which the learner has strengths and weaknesses. This learning map was designed by Learndirect, is computer based and it takes between 2-3 hrs to complete. There is another form of learning plan which has 2 main sections. The tutor completes it with the learner, and measures the level of the learner, identifies learner needs, why the courses are needed and the results and skills the learner has gained from the courses.

The research shows that the needs assessment and learning plan are essential steps in the learning process, although it seems time consuming. Some people working on this stage deal with it as form filling and not as an essentially important step. Furthermore in some big centres they replaced the initial assessment to identify the learner needs and level with a 2-sheet questionnaire designed by centre staff.



#### 6.3.3.2 How do CVS identify learning needs?

Research interviews with CVS were conducted with three main CVS units working in Newcastle and its partners. These organisations are, Newcastle CVS, South Tyneside CVS, and North Tyneside CVS. Each one of them has its own regional and local partners and network (more explanation about these organisations can be found in chapter 4). The researcher also conducted interviews with local venue centres working under the CVS's umbrella. The CVS mainly works on delivering class based face-to-face learning courses. The CVS units differ in their methods of identifying learning needs - some work only with local venue organisations, while others work with local venue organisations and individuals.

- Interviews were conducted within the CVS and its partners and showed that the CVS has its own ways of identifying learning needs
- Requests for certain training courses by individual learners
- Needs to understanding changes in charity law
- Needs based on the survey conducted every 2-3 years with local venue organisations raising
- Needs for special groups in the community
- Needs recorded by learners in the evaluation form after each course they deliver
- Requests by the local venue organisations
- Need to cover what other providers provide in another area far from their location

#### 6.3.3.3 How do Colleges identify learning needs?

This research conducted 20 interviews in Gateshead and Newcastle Colleges. The results show that the colleges have two approaches in identifying learning needs: by contact with individuals or contact with employers. Colleges also have a great deal of contact with learners via their reception switchboards and desks. Potential learners are efficiently directed according to their needs through these processes.

As mentioned by the Social Care courses tutors and employers in the Social Care sector, colleges also contact employers directly to market their courses. Many employers encourages their staff members for enrolment in learning courses, who in



turn are eager to participate in the learning courses. Most of the learning courses delivered by colleges are based on the UK government agenda because the government funding some courses such as Level 2 qualification entitlement for employees in Tyne and Wear, both are free because they target people under the Level 2 qualification.

#### 6.3.3.4 How do employers identify learning needs?

Two employers were contacted during this research: *St Mary Magdalene* (a care home) and Gosforth Private Day Nursery (a nursery for children aged from 16 months to 5 years). The research conducted 10 interviews with the employer, managers, supervisors and learners, and the findings of this section relate specifically to the use of NVQs in the Social Care and Early Years sector.

Two primary issues emerged: first employers had no option but to put employees through training due to government legislation. Government requires employers in the Social Care and Early Years sector to ensure employees to have at least a Level 2 qualification if they are working under supervision and Level 3 if working without supervision.<sup>5</sup> However, there is some resistance to this if people have a great deal of experience. For example, one of the learners worked in the nursery with 20 years experiences and she was obliged to gain the qualification and to do the course. Most of the employers, supervisors and learners themselves did not see the point of gaining qualifications when they had so much experience. This raises the issue of whose needs the courses are designed for and whether or not they meet the real needs of the learners. However policy rules need to be shaped to encourage people to do what will help their community to develop.

On the other learning courses which are not related to qualifications the employer contacts the training agency recommended by inspectors. They inspect the quality of their work, for example for the nursery there is a special training provider called NDNA (National Day Nursery Association) which gives a training manual or training courses and the employer chooses the courses required and contacts the

---

5. The Social Care and Early Years sectors are unusual in this government requirement. NVQs are not required in other employment sectors though they are used as mandatory qualifications for government funded programmes such as apprenticeships



NDNA to deliver the training. The training normally takes place during the weekends and after 6 pm. The policy recommended that in the nursery 75% of the staff have to hold level 3 qualifications and the rest have level 2 qualifications.

6.4 EMPLOYMENT–RELATED SKILLS

In this section, research will be introduced based on analysis statistical evidence cited from the sector skills needs priorities, which accompanies the assessment of learning and skills needs for employers which are presented by the Learning and Skills Council in Tyne and Wear as a key partner in sector development activities in planning or underway for each sector needs (LSC 2004d).

The overall picture in Tyne and Wear has been mentioned by Sector Skills needs by the Learning and Skills Council. There are over 475,000 jobs in Tyne and Wear, in almost 28,500 workplaces. A third of employees in Tyne and Wear work in higher level jobs with equivalent to NVQ level 4 or above, and the same proportion work in jobs level requirement to NVQ level 3. Around 10% of employees work in craft level equivalent to NVQ level 3. Slightly more than fifth of employees work in lower level equivalent to NVQ level 2 (LSC 2005).

Fig 7: Proportion of workers in each qualification skill category

Highest Qualifications Held				
Equivalent level of qualification	Tyne & Wear (number of people estimated)	Tyne & Wear	North East	England
		(% of working age population)		
NVQ Level 4 or above	140,000	21.4 %	20.7 %	25.0 %
NVQ Level 3	91,000	13.9 %	14.0 %	14.7 %
Trade Apprenticeship	57,000	8.6 %	8.5 %	6.2 %
NVQ Level 2	98,000	14.9 %	15.7 %	15.3 %
NVQ Level 1	112,000	17.1 %	16.6 %	14.9 %
Other Qualification	42,000	6.4 %	6.5 %	9.0 %
No Qualifications	116,000	17.6 %	18.0 %	14.8 %

Source :( LSC 2005b) cited in Labour force Survey March 2003- February 2004)



As the table shows above the qualification levels among the working age population in Tyne and Wear are lower than in England as a whole (DfES 2003a) fewer residents of Tyne and Wear hold qualifications at level 4 (Level 4 is the equivalent of a BTEC Higher National Diploma or degree) or above than in England. Conversely, the proportion of Tyne and Wear population who hold no formal qualifications at all is higher than the national average as the diagram show below (LSC 2005 b)

There are 25 sectors, with each sector covering different field. In North East England, each sector has its own field of work (Appendix 5 shows). Tyne and Wear has 12 SSC out of these 25 sectors. The sectors which the LSC is working within Tyne and Wear are: automotive; aviation; chemicals; childcare; clothing and textiles; construction; contact centres; culture and arts; education and training; electronics; engineering (including marine and offshore, metal products and base metals sub sectors); food and drink; health and social care; hospitality and tourism; ICT, business and finance; public administration; retail; transport and logistics; and voluntary and community.

For each of these LSC develops a sector Skills Action Plan, setting out how the needs of the sector will be addressed, how demand will be increased, and how the supply side should respond. The research target group of learners were taken from the sector covered employers working in the field of Social Care and Early Years which work with children, young people and families.

However, a quarter (24.5%) of employers report skills gaps in their existing workforce and an estimated 36,336 employees in Tyne& Wear are less than fully proficient in their current jobs. Skills gaps are apparent in all occupations, but less so in higher level occupations than in others (LSC 2005).

A skills gap has been defined by LSC as “A skills gap exists when an individual is judged by their employer to be not fully proficient in their current job. Skills gaps refer to a lack of skills within an employer’s existing workforce” (LSC 2005:14).

The survey conducted by LSC in 2004 (LSC 2004b) shows a jobs gap caused by people do not search for jobs or they have not got the skills to apply for new jobs theses skills such as job searching, interview and presentation skills(LSC 2005).



Furthermore the net recruitment demand in the period (total employment in Tyne and Wear is projected to show a slight decline to 2012) is projected to equate to almost 171,000 jobs opportunities over a third of current workforce numbers (LSC 2005: 95).

Around 10% of the workforce have gained qualifications through trade apprenticeships between NVQ level 2 and level 3, and among the rest of the workforce, whilst almost a third, are not qualified to NVQ level 2. This includes 10% who hold no formal qualifications at all. A quarter (24.5%) of employers report skills gaps in their existing workforce and an estimated 36,336 employees in Tyne and Wear are less than fully proficient in their current jobs (LSC 2005). Skills gaps are apparent in all occupations, but less so in higher level occupations than in others (LSC 2005).

In summary, the main reason for the job gap is a lack of qualified people (with national qualification certificates); people might have the experience to do the work but they do not hold a qualification level certificate, as the earlier example in the nursery demonstrated. An additional reason is the lack of job searching skills. For employers who provided learning opportunities (training), two thirds (65%) of employers arrange or fund training for their staff, and more than half the employees in Tyne and Wear receive training from their employer. However, significant proportions of employers provide no training for staff in any occupation (LSC 2005). Changing the attitude and culture is an essential part of the economic strategy. The UK government seeks to make learning and training embedded in employers' culture, with the aim of raising qualification levels and increasing GDP, which will lead to economic growth.

The interviews conducted in Tyne and Wear shows that, people with level 2 qualification or below found out about their job by "word of mouth" and most of them prefer to stay in their job rather than change their career. In contrast, people with a level 4 qualification or above prefer to change their jobs and progress their career. Furthermore, people with a Level 4 qualification or above are more aware about job searching than those with level 2 or 3 qualifications.



6.5 LEARNING NEEDS AND ISSUES IN TYNE & WEAR

This section will present the needs on the level of employment and basic skills needs:

6.5.1 Basic Skills

The table below shows the working age population by levels of Literacy and Numeracy in Tyne and Wear compared with the rest of the North East region and England.

Fig 8: Literacy and Numeracy Rate in Tyne and Wear, North East and England

Table :    Literacy Level			
Level	Tyne and Wear	North East	England
	(% of working age population)		
Entry level 1 or below	1%	4%	3%
Entry level 2	2%	3%	29%
Entry level 3	15%	14%	11%
Level 1	48%	41%	40%
Level 2 or above	34%	37%	44%

Table :    Numeracy Level			
Level	Tyne and Wear	North East	England
	(% of working age population)		
Entry level 1 or below	6%	6%	5%
Entry level 2	21%	22%	16%
Entry level 3	32%	27%	25%
Level 1	26%	24%	28%
Level 2 or above	15%	21%	25%

Source: Skills for Life Survey, (DfES 2003b)

In Tyne & Wear a significant proportion of the working age population have literacy skills below level 2 (66% compared with 56% in England) and numeracy skills below level 2 (85% compared with 75% in England). People with poor literacy skills may be able to read a short paragraph in a daily newspaper, but they are not able to use a Yellow Pages for example, and people with very poor literacy skills have



difficulty in reading. People with poor numeracy skills can deal with simple transactions, however they find percentages and fractions difficult. People with very poor numeracy skills are unable to perform even the simplest of calculations (DfES 2003b).

Thirteen interviews were conducted with Basic Skills project staff members and these show that people with poor numeracy and literacy skills face a wide range of problems on a daily basis. For example, in their home there are problems such as handling bills, writing letters and filling forms. At work further problems may be encountered, such as understanding instructions from a manager or colleagues, reading notices and letters, these problems can lead to a general fear of losing a job, or having to leave because of their lack of competence. In addition, when looking for a job, people prefer to have a job rather than building a career or thinking of improving their qualifications. In social life, people can have problems keeping up with conversation or handling change and parents have trouble helping their children doing homework.

The Regional Development Agency for North-East England, One NorthEast, has pointed out that: “a significant proportion of the region’s adults still have low levels of basic literacy and numeracy which limits their ability to participate fully in either learning or employment” (Regional Economic Strategy 2006:90).

## **6.6 LSC PRIORITIES AND STRATEGIES FOR TYNE AND WEAR**

Based on LLSC (Tyne and Wear) documents and the needs of community sectors and employers’ needs mentioned above, the LLSC sets assessment of learning and skills needs. The LLSC sets goals and objectives to cover these needs, as has been mentioned above. This research study is examining these goals and objectives to improve the workforce and raise the qualifications in the Tyne and Wear area for the target group under level 2 qualification. These objectives in summary are defined in (LSC 2005):



**6.6.1 Priority (1): To increase the number of adults participating in Skills for Life provision that contributes towards the national target by:**

- Ensuring the mix of provision by discipline on offer locally better reflects local needs
- Increasing the number of suitably qualified Basic Skills tutors
- Re-aligning the mix of provision to ensure more of the provision on offer locally contributes towards the national target
- Increasing the capacity of local basic skills provision
- Raising self-awareness of basic skills problems with those who are experiencing them and helping the people to overcome them
- Overcoming attitudinal barriers

In priority (1) the research shows that, overall the North East is achieving in line with government targets, However, in objective 2 it seems the lack of qualified teachers for basic skills, as the research shows, will be a barrier to achieving this objective, the number of basic skills learners is increasing because of the employers realising the values of gaining this skills in work between employer which encourage the employers to support their employees to take these courses. Also, with reference to objective 6, the research shows that there is little change in attitude Most of the basic skills learners attend the course due to their employer's recommendation, or because they are going to get promotion in their work. Few go for their own self development or needs such as helping their children, or dealing with life issues as will be mentioned in more detail in section 4, "identify the learning needs", later on in this chapter.

**6.6.2 Priority (2): To increase the number of adults with Level 2 qualifications by:**

- Delivering the entitlement to a first Level
- Increasing informed demand for employment-related skills among employers and individuals
- Increasing the uptake of employer training: EQ8
- Ensuring that adults are able to make informed decisions about their learning



- Meeting the needs of asylum seekers, refugees and those for whom English is not their first language: ESOL
- Meeting the needs of learners with learning difficulties and/or disabilities
- Addressing non-approved/‘other’ provision

The government raised the minimum qualification for employment from a level 2 to a level 3 qualification in 1998, as has been mentioned earlier. Therefore most employers forced or encouraged their employees who were under level 2 to gain the qualification, the government funded most of these courses that led towards level 2 qualifications.

With reference to priority 2 and the research; this priority seems to work very well in the sector which the research focuses on (Social Care and Early Years). As a good example from the research interview, the course leader of Early Years and leader of beauty courses at Newcastle College mentioned that when they started booking for the course before the term, the number of learners was 75 or 80, however when they started registration in the first academic year the number reached 150 learners, which shows that the idea of gaining a level 2 qualification is attractive to both individuals and their employers. In objective 4 there are still some learners facing problems with identifying their learning needs, especially those in Learndirect centres if they are under level 2 or 3 qualifications. This is because of misleading information in some of these centres, some centres do not care about the real learning requirements of individuals but try to assign them to courses in order to improve their statistics.

### **6.6.3 Priority (3): to better meet skills needs**

- Addressing the implications of demographic change
- Meeting unmet skills needs
- Increasing the flexibility and responsiveness of provision to meet skills needs
- Increasing the amount of employer-supported training that leads to accredited qualifications
- Sustaining the delivery of project-based provision
- Developing high quality specialist provision
- Strengthening the strategic role of Centres of Vocational Excellence



- Ensuring provision more closely reflects the skills needs of the local economy

In Priority 3 the research shows that the government is very keen in its aim to keep updating the skills needs and to change policy to encourage employers and individuals to increase their qualifications. For example, in the 1998 White Paper the government increased the minimum qualification from level 2 to level 3, especially for unsupervised jobs such as child minder and care work. Also the research shows that as a result of the policy change in employment qualifications the employer became more supportive of training and learning leading to accredited qualification. Furthermore, in the food and drink sector, although there is a course at the college that covers the qualification for this sector, there is a need for more specialist training which the UK government encourages the colleges to develop and offers more support for employers to have specialises in the sector by offering the EQ8 training scheme support.

The main themes for the LLSC strategy area as defined in (LSC 2004c) for Tyne and Wear are information advice and guidance for adults, provision for learners with learning difficulties and/or disabilities, adult and community learning and Basic Skills. For each of these themes local LSC develops an action plan that sets out how, together with stakeholders, they will address the issues raised by the local LSC analysis. The implementation of the LSC local strategic plan is divided into two parts; raising the level of skills and developing the learning infrastructure.

The research study examines, the skills delivered by different learning approaches and schemes such as the three learning approaches that have been chosen by the research study (Basic Skills, Learndirect and Work-Based Learning). Also it will study the develop of the learning infrastructure by giving support given to employers and sectors in England who working towards more participation from the community in learning and support for the environment that encourages people to look at their learning opportunities.

The world economy is becoming global. The increasing capacity of countries such as China and India to produce goods and services at a much lower price than in the UK has seen work being transferred to these locations. The most constructive response to



this development, for employers faced with global competition, is to develop a skills strategy to improve their workforce qualifications.

## **6.7 PROVIDERS ON LOCAL LEVEL**

On the local level there are many providers of learning opportunities for learning based on the needs and the priorities for LSC, as mentioned above. Some receive funding directly from the LLSC some receive funding indirectly and some are not funded at all. The researcher contacted 6 types of providers and conducted interviews with managers, staff, tutors, teachers, learners and principles. These groups provide different types of learning e.g. e-learning- classroom, work based learning and peer to peer learning. The providers are:

- Learndirect centres
- Council Voluntary Services CVS
- Private business providers
- Community Development Centres
- Projects
- College

### **6.7.1 Learndirect centres**

Learndirect Centres are among the providers who deliver e- learning, especially leardirect courses. The centres are located in sports clubs, leisure and community centre, churches, libraries on universities campuses and even in railway stations. There is even a mobile Learndirect centre located in a bus. Learndirect helps learners to find a course that will fit with their own needs and provides learners with access to a computer. However, the quality of service in Learndirect is varied and differs from centre to centre. Some centres are rich in their resources and some are not. Learndirect offers a free helpline to aid learners in choosing a Learndirect centre and other options through an internet link.

The Learndirect centres offers courses under 3 categories: skills for life, IT and management courses (Appendix 4 table shows the Learndirect categories and the courses covered under each category). However the most popular courses are the ones under skills for life courses, and most of these courses are free. The research



contacted 2 Learndirect centres: Learning Links and Action for Employment (A4e work).

#### 6.7.1.1 Learning Links:

Learning links is a leading provider of e- learning training to adults and young people within industry and individuals wishing to train in Tyne and Wear. The centre is run by one manager and currently employs 6 staff. The centre consists of one industrial training centre in Lynnwood Terrace in West Road in Newcastle. The learning centre services around 580 learners through 1300 courses. The centre provides 2 different sorts of courses; e-learning courses and face to face classroom based courses.

To provide e-learning courses (Learndirect courses) the centre has around 12 computers to provide Learndirect courses. Learndirect courses are funded through the Tyne & Wear hub (the Hub is the organisation that is responsible for funding the private provider for Leardirect training courses). The centre provides face to face training in 3 main courses: personal effectiveness courses, employment plus courses and employability skills. These courses are funded by Neighbourhood Renewal Fund.

The centre has an agreement with Job Centre Plus and Work Finder organisations throughout Tyne and Wear to refer people who need training courses to the centre. Also the centre provides courses in English for speakers of other languages (ESOL). The centre has set up learning centres within the following industries: engineering, Navy, SME's with less than 2500 employees, and Care Association.

#### 6.7.1.2 Action for Employment (A4e work)

A4e Gateshead link is one of 4 learndirect related centres located in Newcastle, North Tyneside and South Tyneside. A4e centre was established in 1998 to provide training for the unemployed, but has now moved towards delivering Learndirect activities. A4e Gateshead services around 50 individual learners. The centre is funded by E-Learning North East hub, which is linked to the University of Sunderland. The centre provides learndirect courses in IT, Skills for life and team leadership.



A4e Gateshead is a small learndirect centre, which also comprises of Gateshead Job Centre and a Women's Health Centre. The centre has 7 computers and there is only one member of staff to cover the administration and management of the centre, the centre covers the whole of Gateshead.

### **6.7.2 Council for Voluntary Services (CVS) and Voluntary Organisations' Network North East (VONNE)**

The CVS organisations in the North East are involved in a range of training schemes to improve community skills. The benefits of these projects to the learner are many and include increased confidence and job prospects as well as the ability to participate more fully in the community. Voluntary groups will benefit from having workers with enhanced skills as well as adding value to their users.

In the North East CVS come under the umbrella of VONNE, Voluntary Organisations' Network North East. VONNE was set up to facilitate links between voluntary and community groups and other relevant bodies. It is a small and strategically focused body concerned with policy co-ordination and information on regional level. VONNE aims to: “inform the sector about issues impacting at the regional level; support the active involvement of the sector in regional and national developments; promote effective and beneficial partnerships within and between the sector and other sectors throughout the region; ensure that the sector receives the support that it requires to play a full role in regional developments; and articulate the views and interests of the sector” (Vonne Leaflet 2005).

The objectives of VONNE are included in increasing the advocated effectiveness between communities by different activities such as conferences, regular meeting between CVSs. VONNE helps the local community organisations to be an effective, efficient and economic organisation (Vonne Leaflet 2005). The researcher contacted the following organisations serving the voluntary sector in Tyne and Wear:

#### **6.7.2.1 North Tyneside Voluntary Organisation Development Agency (VODA)**

VODA is the North Tyneside Voluntary Organisations Development Agency which values, promotes and supports the development of the voluntary and community



sector to achieve a borough-wide community rich in volunteers. North Tyneside has a extensive links between various organisations in the community.

VODA offers a range of training opportunities to help individuals and group to develop. Training For The Voluntary Sector (TVS). The TVS programme provides low cost training for anyone involved in the voluntary and community sector of North Tyneside. These activities are related to training and educate people by raising their awareness throughout the training and learning activities such as training on IT skills, communication skills, presentation skills, writing reports and writing proposals, fund-raising, equal opportunities and personal development issues such as time management. This includes paid staff, volunteers and members of management committees, from small community groups to large organisations.

One of VODA projects related to training and learning is Millennium Volunteers project The main aim of the MV Project is to encourage young people aged 16-24 to get involved with local community projects to benefit themselves and others. Young people who take up volunteering as part of improving their local community and increasing their own skills. Since the Project was launched in 1999 more than 130,000 young people across England have become MVs. Young people are encouraged to build on what they learn by choosing opportunities to volunteer in areas that reflect their own individual skills and interests. These activities young people involving from designing websites to coaching local sports teams as improving their skills and develop their communication and presentation skills. The MV Project in North Tyneside is run by VODA, along with VODA's Volunteering Team.

#### 6.7.2.2 Newcastle Council Voluntary Services:

Newcastle Council for Voluntary Service is an independent non-profit organisation, managed by an elected voluntary committee. It receives substantial grants from Newcastle City Council and raises a considerable part of its funds from private sources, the organisation aim to improve the quality of life in the community as a whole. This is achieved through a broad programme of voluntary social action and training activity.



The CVS training activity in the area of, Financial Services, Funding Advice, General Information and Advice, Library, Mailing Service and Training as shown in the (appendix 6). They arrange training courses on a range of topics of interest to people needs who are part of voluntary organisations. The diagram below shows the areas which the NCVS working in it. It is very clear that training is one of the fundamental areas the NCVS work on.

#### 6.7.2.3 South Tyneside Council Voluntary Services:

Councils for Voluntary Services are local organisations set up and run by local groups to support, promote and develop local voluntary training activities. They are often referred to local development agencies (LDAs). The South Tyneside CVS mission is: CVS exists to provide a range of training activity and resources to support the development of an effective and efficient voluntary sector skills. They exist to promote and develop the effectiveness of voluntary action through different objectives such as improving the skills, the objective that relates to training and learning is: providing support services such as information, advice and training.

### **6.7.3 Private business providers**

#### 6.7.3.1 IT Training Solutions:

The researcher interviewed the owner of a local IT Company. The company is a major provider of IT services. IT Training solutions is a North East based company which provides computer and soft skills training for businesses throughout the whole of the UK (but mainly focused in the North East). The company was set up in 1992, IT Training Solutions began life as an on site computer training company in response to the business world's growing demand. Nowadays, IT Training Solutions has grown in size and is one of the leading IT training providers in the North-East establishing a set of clients including ASDA, BUPA, NISSAN and the NHS. The company have training venues in Newcastle, Washington, and Bedale (North Yorkshire). The company also offers onsite training as employers require. The company, although working as provider for big employers such as ASDA and NHS, receive no funding from the LSC or the government. The company owner attempted to gain funding from the LSC to expand his provision of learning in IT but he was put off by the amount of paperwork involved.



#### **6.7.4 Community Development Centres:**

##### **6.7.4.1 Newcastle Basic Skills Service at Heaton Area:**

Newcastle Basic Skills Services offers flexible and local services as local community development and adult education centre follows the local Authority in Heaton area, the Heaton office is one of network content 2 offices second office in Newcastle city centre and third one in Gosforth. also this centre offers the training to those who live and work in the city. The Basic Skills Services in Newcastle offers opportunities to adults who want to improve their literacy/numeracy skills by providing a flexible local service which helps people reach their full potential. They provide all provision in line with national standards and nationally recognised qualification from pre-entry level to level 2. All staff in the basic skills service have appropriate qualifications and are continuously involved in Continuing Professional Development (CPD), both internally and externally. They are all involved in quality improvement and participate in self-assessment and rigorous monitoring of retention/achievement. During November 2004- March 2005 the basic skills services was fortunate in having a consultant from the LSC whose remit was to support the development of a skills for life strategy.

#### **6.7.5 Special Projects:**

##### *Basic Skills Project at Newcastle CVS*

The Basic Skills Project was set up early in 2005 by life long learning organisation to involve Newcastle's voluntary sector in the promotion of basic literacy and numeracy skills among its users. Newcastle has relatively low levels of adult literacy and numeracy by national standards, and because of voluntary organisations' strong links with hard to reach groups of potential learners, the voluntary sector is a very important part of any attempt to improve levels of these skills.

The project's aim is to help and support voluntary organisations in engaging hard to reach learners in appropriate courses of learning. The project objectives aim to achieve by the following ways: By raising awareness of basic skills issues among voluntary organisations and their users. Also Through encouraging voluntary organisations to refer their users to appropriate learning programmes. The project can make payments to organisations when learners participate in a minimum number of hours of learning. The project will support workers in voluntary organisations to train



in the recognition of basic skills needs in service users, and effective signposting of learners to the most appropriate courses. The project provide one to one tuition in community settings can be provided for learners who are not ready to access group or classroom learning straight away.

*Barnardo's programme for training:*

Barnardo was established by Dr. Thomas Barnardo in 1868. From the 1970s onwards, Barnardo's continued to expand its work in fostering and adoption and family centres were set up in communities to support families in deprived areas. They set out to help families facing problems such as unemployment, poor health, bad housing and poverty, with the aim of defusing the stress and tension that might lead to family breakdown and child abuse.

Barnardo's works with the most vulnerable children and young people, helping them transform their live and fulfil their potential. Barnardo's the UK's leading children charity, supporting 100,000 children and their families through 361 services in England, North Ireland, Scotland and Wales. Barnardo's helps children young people and their families over the long term to overcome the most severe disadvantages-problems like abuse, homelessness and poverty and to tackle the challenges of disability. Barnardo's vision is that the lives of all children and young people should be free from poverty, abuse and discrimination. Their purpose is to help the most difficult children and young people. Barnardo's work focuses on the vital components that make up a happy, healthy childhood or "building blocks"

In Tyne and Wear Barnardo's used to manage 40 projects in learning and training, but now they manage only 17 projects and most of their project funds comes from the government. Barnardo's programme is targeted by the research because of its relationship with improving workforce skills by training scheme on different vocational skills. The programme offers job opportunities for unemployed people by training them to be qualified to work in Barnardo's projects.

#### **6.7.6 Further Education Colleges**

In Tyne and Wear colleges are big providers for learning in the region. In Tyne and Wear there are six colleges: Gateshead College, Newcastle College, North Tyneside College, South Tyneside College, South Shields, Sunderland College and Tyne South



College. The researcher contacted only 2 colleges due to time limitation. These were Newcastle College and Gateshead College.

#### 6.7.6.1 Newcastle College

Newcastle College is a large general college of further education, with over 40,000 students currently studying, the research target group are 35,125 adult learners in full time and part time courses for 2000 businesses for whom the college provides education and training. It has four main sites in the city of Newcastle, and three outreach centres; in Cramlington, Hexham and Blaydon. The college itself is a major employer in the city of Newcastle, with over 1,000 employees. Seven hundred and fifty are directly involved in teaching or supporting learning ( ACC fact sheet 2004).

In 1998 the College worked with Tyneside Training and Enterprise Council (TEC) to offer training for young people and adults. Currently the college is contracted by the Learning and Skills Council to offer the same training in modern apprenticeships, national traineeships and work-based training programmes. In addition, the college is part of a consortium with two other local colleges, and is a main provider of training under the full-time education and training option of New Deal. Training is offered in nine occupational sectors. These are construction, engineering, manufacturing, business administration, leisure, sport and travel, hospitality, hair and beauty, health, care and public services and media and design. The main sectors for research target group are Social Care and Early Years. The college is planning to cover more sectors in the future (Newcastle ACC fact sheet 2004).

The region served by Newcastle College covers Northumberland, Tyne and Wear, Durham, Cleveland and North Yorkshire. The region's industrial base is changing rapidly. Traditional industries such as shipbuilding and coal mining have declined to the point of extinction and are being replaced by automotive, electronics and telecommunications industries. Labour market surveys predict a future demand for additional trained staff in engineering, customer services (especially call centres), health care, tourism and leisure (Newcastle ACC fact sheet 2004).



#### 6.7.6.2 Gateshead College

Gateshead College is a large general further education (FE) college. Each year in the college there is more than 26,000 full time, part time and community students. The college has all kind of courses for adults: full time and part time: further and higher education; professional qualification and degree; apprenticeships and short 10 week courses in the community. The college vision is by 2006 to be at the heart of a thriving Gateshead community, leading and driving the development of education and training; adult and community learning across Gateshead; workforce preparation and development across Tyneside (Gateshead 2005).

The college operates from a main site based at Durham Road and has over 100 community-based venues across Gateshead (Gateshead 2005). The total number of students in 2002/03 on courses funded by the Learning and Skills Council (LSC) was 21,314, of whom 1,058 were full-time students aged 16 to 18 and 453 were full-time adult students. The remainder were part time.

### **Conclusion**

This chapter has given an account of research field work on the case study of Tyne and Wear. Different elements were examined in this chapter; learners target group in the research; the learning needs issues and problems in Tyne and Wear; the role different local partners play to identify learning needs for the workforce; the community and sector skills needs; the priorities for the LSC as a strategic organisation aiming to deliver the workforce development strategies; the local providers that deliver the LSC priorities and learning activities in Tyne and Wear.

It seems the UK government is working very hard to remove barriers to learning, to motivate people to learn and to support more participation in learning for individuals, families and the community towards learning by matching the individual and community needs with employers needs. This can lead to economic development by providing the local labour market in England and international market with skills needed



The next chapter will continue to present the issues related to the research case study in England, which are in summary the three learning approaches that have been chosen as case study material.



# **CHAPTER 7**

## **LEARNING APPROACHES, FINDINGS AND BEST PRACTICES IN THE CASE STUDY OF TYNE AND WEAR**

This chapter aims to build on previous chapters in examining the research field work and will give an overview on the implementing process that was a result of research interviews and publications. It will also compare and correlate that with the economic strategy for the North East. This chapter is divided into three main elements:

1. Life long learning (Basic Skills)
2. E- Learning (Learndirect)
3. Work-based learning (college courses)

The findings are presented for each learning approach. Each of them are examined in relation to how they deliver the UK government's overall strategy locally in Tyne and Wear. The research also highlighted best practice in each learning approach.

### **7.1 LIFE LONG LEARNING (BASIC SKILLS)**

As it has been mentioned earlier in the LSC priorities, skills for life is one of the most important priorities for LSC. This part of the chapter will present the strategic and national context, from a practical point of view and reflects on the economic strategy, the research findings and best practice in Basic Skills will be introduced.

There are an estimated 7.8 million people in the UK with literacy and numeracy skills below level 2, equivalent to a A\*-C grade at GCSE. The impact on people's everyday lives of a literacy, numeracy or language difficulty can be enormous. Many of these people need to improve their skills to manage everyday tasks, such as helping children with homework, following a recipe, dealing with household accounts or responding to official correspondence. Literacy and numeracy problems



also affect people at work, and hinder not only individuals' progress but business' efficiency and productivity (Basic Skills Agency 2000).

### **7.1.1 The Basic Skills Strategic context**

In June 2002 the UK government published *Success for All- Reforming Education and Training*, a discussion document to consult on proposals to reform the whole of the future education and training sector and raise standards (DfES 2002a). Success for All is designed to contribute to the government's twin goals of social inclusion and economic prosperity (ibid). The four goals of the strategy are:

- Meeting needs, improving choice
- Putting teaching, training and learning at the heart of what we do
- Developing the teachers, leaders and support staff of the future
- Developing a framework for quality and success

Skills for Life covers all post-16 learners who are participating in numeracy, literacy and ESOL programmes including those for learners with difficulties and /or disabilities, from pre-entry level up to and including level 2. The guide also covers the key skills of communication and application of number at levels 1 and 2, whether delivered as stand-alone provision, as a part of a vocational programme or a discrete course; delivered full-time, part-time or through self study or ICT. In this context literacy and numeracy is the generic term given to all activity related to the key skills qualifications of communication and application of number. The key skills qualifications of communication and application of number are included in the definitions because they require learners to pass the equivalent of new national tests in literacy or numeracy before they can be awarded. For similar reasons the definition extends to post-16 learners achieving GCSE English or Mathematics (DfES 2002b).

Skills for Life, focusing on the literacy, numeracy and ESOL education of young people, is a key part of the government's agenda. The task is to change the culture of national attitudes towards learning in the post-16 sector, and build on the work that has started in school to raise standards of learning in literacy, numeracy and ESOL. The government has set itself a Public Service Agreement (PSA) target to improving



the literacy and numeracy skills of 750,000 adults by 2004 and 1.5 million by 2007 (DfES, 2002 a).

The national strategy for adult literacy and numeracy aims to address low attainment and low capacity. The government raised expenditure on adult basic skills provision from £201 million in 2001/2002 to £403 million in 2003/2004. National Standards for literacy and numeracy have been introduced, along with new core curricula for literacy, numeracy, ESOL and Learners with Learning Difficulties and Disabilities (LLDD) (ibid).

The strategy includes arrangements for offering better information about provision; it aims to remove barriers to learning and to provide incentives to learners. Currently, there are more learning opportunities provided on employer's premises, in community settings and through family literacy and numeracy programmes (DfES 2002a).

#### **7.1.2 The Basic Skills implementation process:**

The implementation process based on interviewing (10 learners +5 staff members) 2 basic skills centres located in Tyne and Wear (Heaton Community Centre and Gosforth Community Centre areas). On the local level in Tyne and Wear significant progress has been made in implementing aspects of the Skills for Life strategy. However, the lack of skilled teachers is affecting the capacity to improve provision. Also the Skills for Life strategy has been successful in attracting learners from priority groups, such as the unemployed, people in unskilled low paid work and public sector employees. In addition, many general further education colleges are attracting non-traditional learners through community provision (Ofsted, 2005). The shortages of teachers with the necessary expertise and qualifications in literacy, numeracy and ESOL remain in all types of colleges. Literacy and numeracy development is integrated into vocational teaching in many colleges with too many vocational tutors who are not sufficiently well qualified in literacy, numeracy or both (ibid).

The individual learning profile for the Basic Skills learners in steps are:



Initial contacts, which are done by phone or in person are recorded on the referral form; an appointment made for an initial interview and assessment after the learner has stated any preferences for time, venue and has outlined the reason for contacting the basic skills centre.

Initial interviews are scheduled for at least an hour and usually include the initial assessment. Learners are offered assessment in both literacy and numeracy but may not do them both at once. Most learners do both assessments. Where possible, interviews are carried out in a space by a tutor who has no teaching responsibilities at that time. At the end of the interview the first page of the ILP (Individual Learning Plan) will have been completed, the learner will have enrolled for assessment (3 hours) and study skills (6 hours) and will have discussed the probable next step into a 30 hours course. An appointment is made for the learner to attend for tuition.

The 6 hours study skills course is an opportunity for the learner, through diagnostic assessment and with information about accreditation, to formulate a realistic learning goal with a time targeted study plan. Tutors select approximately from a range of diagnostic assessment tools. Learners are also offered an exploration of learning styles. The ILP is completed at this stage. Curriculum grids may also be used to chart the learner profile and to provide a checklist to record progress towards goals.

Learners are then enrolled on a 30 hours course, either generic or leading to accreditation as follows: in the table shows:

**Fig 9 Literacy and numeracy certificates in England**

level	Literacy	Numeracy
Entry Levels 1,2 and 3	OCNW certificate in Adult Literacy portfolio and /or controlled assignments  Or AQA achievement Tests in Literacy test paper and internally assessment speaking task	OCNW certificate in Adult Numeracy portfolio and /or controlled assignments  Or AQA achievement Tests in numeracy test paper
Level 1 and 2	National tests- paper based and	National tests- paper based and



	on-line key skills- portfolio and National Test	on-line key skills- portfolio and National Test
--	--	--

The learner's programme reflects individual needs - it may supplement a course outline if the learner is part of a group, or may represent the learner's entire programme if working individually. Session aims and achievements are recorded on the work record sheet.

Reviews are carried out regularly according to the learner's need and rate of progress, and recorded on the ILP together with the appropriate re-formulation of the study plan. Learners may enrol on a further 30 hours course, or enter for accreditation.

Evidence of achievement and progress towards learner's goals is kept in the learner's work folders, and this together with the work record and review opportunities enables learners and tutors to agree achievement and record it. Learners are offered an initial certificate of achievement if they require one.

Finally at the completion of learners' course or courses, they are given guidance on appropriate progression routes and asked to complete an evaluation questionnaire.

### **7.1.3 The evaluation process in Basic Skills programme:**

In basic skills there are 3 steps of evaluation for learners. First is the initial test which any basic skills centre use to identify what level the learner is and what level he/she should start in his/her learning course. Second is the reviewing of the learner's goals and objective in his/her learning plan, normally the teacher reviews the learning objectives for the learner regularly to see what the learner has achieved and if there is a need to rewrite or add anything. Third is the final assessment which the learner does after finishing the basic skills course, and after this he/she gains certification for the final test from City & Guilds.

These steps are based on the researcher's interview with a basic skills teacher and learners and the success rate can indicate the success of a particular institution's basic skills programme and/or the success of particular learners in relation to gaining qualifications. However there is still no measurement for the impact of these courses



and how these courses reflect on the learners' life or work. As mentioned by the basic skills centre staff, the responsibility of measuring the impact of these courses on the individual's life experience and performance at work is the responsibility of the employer or the learner themselves.

#### **7.1.4 Research findings on Basic Skills:**

Literacy and numeracy problems also affect people at work, and hinder not only individuals' progress but business' efficiency and productivity.

The research study shows that in 2003 the Skills for Life strategy unit, jointly with the LSC, began a project to train adults in literacy and numeracy. The project was managed nationally and through the LSC's local offices (research interview). Providers for learning were given funding to deliver skills for life to individuals and employees in the providers centres or in the work place. This part of the research study analyses the research visits to the Basic skills providers' centres. This section will give a clear statement of the main findings of the research and will give some recommendations. The findings are structured in three main parts: providers, teaching and teachers and learners.

The findings are based on research conducted in Tyne and Wear. The researcher contacted 3 providers of Basic Skills programmes in Tyne and Wear in 2 different areas. The researcher interviewed 15 interviewees (10 Learners and 5 Staff Members and Teachers).

##### **7.1.4.1 Local Providers**

1. Some providers have effective processes for initial assessment and diagnostic testing. Typically, the Basic Skills centre gives learners initial assessments which identifies clearly their level of skills, and rationally follow this with more detailed diagnostic tests to identify specific strengths and weaknesses. They also consider learner's previous experience of learning and relevant life experiences and identify individual learning styles. Most of these providers use nationally recognized initial and diagnostic tests. Some testing is IT-based by using the computer in online test for literacy and numeracy and other paper work, in which there are 2 sorts of test; (A) without use of a



calculator and (B) with use of calculator. The paper test takes about 1 hour and 15 minutes. Managing these procedures varies from provider to provider and from teacher to teacher and is based on the teacher experiences and talent. But it seems it is managed in the class- based provision better and more effectively amongst IT providers because in the classroom, there is more interaction between learners sharing skills, gaining team work skills, communication skills and presentation skills.

2. Many providers have a good range and variety of learning resources: well presented worksheets and books including materials developed as a part of the Skills for life strategy. Teachers use these resources effectively; supplementing them with materials they devise themselves. ICT based literacy and numeracy resources are often available. Many learners find using ICT particularly motivating.
3. Providers included in the research have a highly flexible approach to offering learning: they schedule learning sessions carefully to fit with employee's shifts and the preferences of the employer. Some sessions run at times not traditionally associated with formal learning. Some providers also offer learning sessions at their own training centres, which usefully supplement those at work. Although offering group sessions is more cost effective for providers, many readily offer individual learning. e.g. there is one learner who is pregnant and needs to come once a week for 3 hours, she attends on the recommendation of her manger in order to get promotion. The centre works with her individually.



4. The and their way of teaching is highly effective in widening participation in learning in the way of dealing with individual learners and the number is attending the basic skills courses varies for different fields. For example, the researcher met groups of learners working in different sectors such as working in big stores like ASDA, banks, and civic centres. Most of the literacy and numeracy learners had very negative experiences of formal learning before they began their studies, but now they are enthusiastic about learning. For example, some of them come after finishing work and it was observed that even though they were exhausted through work they still attended the course.
5. The research shows the quality of the services and teaching is very good in small level providers. Also these small providers are well controlled by the funding agencies for example, if they fail to achieve their targets one academic year the funding authority can cut their funds in the following year. However big providers who look to enrol learners to on line courses received good funding. It has been noticed that amongst the basic skills providers, working on a small scale in a classroom is difficult and requires more highly trained teachers than facilitators; this is different from the online courses providers.

#### 7.1.4.2 Teaching style and teachers:

1. Much of the teaching is very good. In successful sessions, learners enjoy it, are clear about the aims of sessions and are encouraged to take an active and productive part in them. Good use is made of ICT facilities, allowing learners to work individually on web-based exercises, or to practice for their test, which improves their ICT skills. Groups are often small (between 6-9 learners) and learners get good individual support. Where learners are taught alone, coaching is good. Learners speak highly of their teachers. In particular, they like being treated as adults in a learning environment, and feel the environment is friendly.
2. Individual learning is planned, reviewed and recorded in very clear statements and shaped as an agreement which learners sign.
3. Suitable teaching staffs are scarce. Staff who teach literacy and numeracy generally have useful qualifications and experiences, however most of Basic



Skills prefer teaching in the college because wages in the colleges are better than other learning providers. Therefore providers have significant difficulties in recruiting suitably trained staff. For example one of the centres complained about staff shortages, they had 7 Academic members of teaching staff in teaching for their target of 1000 learners during one academic year. The class capacity is between 7 to 9 learners and each learner should spend 15 hours in order to finish the course.

4. Some teachers in some small providers do not have as much experience as the teachers in colleges, and qualified teachers prefer to teach basic skills courses in colleges rather than other providers because the wages in colleges are better. However, a benefit of the small providers is that they focus on participatory learning and provide a good learning environment for the community.

#### 7.1.4.3 Learners:

1. Most learners who attended courses are employed or have taken the course in order to improve their qualifications and get a better job
2. Learners report significant gains in confidence and self esteem, some feel sufficiently confident to apply for promotion for the first time. Some want to continue training or study in other areas or complete college. Learners find their new skills useful at work and at home.
3. Learners significantly improve specific numeracy and literacy skills, such as long division and working with fractions or correct use of grammar and punctuation.
4. Learners apply their new skills well in their personal lives, many are able to help their children with Mathematics or English homework for the first time, some learners can estimate the cost of their shopping bill. One learner worked out how to calculate all her bills mentally. In addition, she gives some support to the centre to calculate the learners' working hours.
5. In some providers, the learners are mixed between employees and individuals, the materials and curriculum used in the centre serves general purposes in basic skills rather than dealing with the learners' individual work environment, however, the course gives the basic skills in numeracy and literacy.



6. Generally speaking, skills for life (basic skills) will not directly fit the individual's employment requirements but it gives learners the ability to read and write well, which in turn gives the learner the ability to understand and use printed information in daily activities at home, at work (if they are working) and in the community in order to achieve their goals and to develop their knowledge and potential. This will raise the awareness of learners. Increasing awareness of knowledge is a key factor for economic growth and performance.

#### **7.1.5 Best Practice in Basic skills**

The UK government funded different projects for Basic Skills and the researcher contacted 2 Projects for running to deliver Basic skills; one in the voluntary services programme of Community Voluntary Services (CVS) and other one in community centre programme based on community centres.

The researcher considered the voluntary programme to exemplify best practice in contacting and reaching learners and teaching basic skills in different ways

##### *Best Practices in Basic Skills Project in voluntary sector:*

This project has been chosen as an example of best practice in the way it reaches learners. The Basic Skills Project was set up early in 2005 to involve Newcastle's voluntary sector in the promotion of basic literacy and numeracy skills among its users. Newcastle has relatively low levels of adult literacy and numeracy by national standards, and because of voluntary organisations' strong links with hard to reach groups of potential learners, the voluntary sector is a very important part of any attempt to improve levels of these skills.

The project's aim is to help and support voluntary organisations in engaging hard to reach learners in appropriate courses of learning.

##### *How will the project achieve this?*

- By raising awareness of basic skills issues among voluntary organisations and their users.
- Through encouraging voluntary organisations to refer their users to appropriate learning programmes. The project can make payments to organisations when learners participate in a minimum number of hours of learning.



- The project will support workers in voluntary organisations to train in the recognition of basic skills needs in service users, and effective signposting of learners to the most appropriate courses.
- One to one tuition in community settings can be provided for learners who are not ready to access group or classroom learning straight away.

#### *What are the benefits to learners and productivity?*

The researcher considered this project as an example of best practice because the benefits of the project to the learner are many and include increased confidence and job prospects as well as the ability to participate more fully in the community. Voluntary groups will benefit from having workers with enhanced skills as well as adding value to their users.

A key factor of Basic Skills affecting productivity in the longer term is whether skills levels of new entrants to the labour force increase over time. Those workers with the lowest skills levels that the project serve tend to receive the least workforce training. In a period of high employment growth, combined with high levels of employment (as has been the case in the UK over recent years), more low skilled people can enter the workforce. Consequently, it is important to redress the imbalance of training opportunities for this group to avoid holding back future productivity growth, which the project does by working with individuals and groups.

## **7.2 E-LEARNING (LEARNDIRECT)**

This section will introduce the strategy of the Learndirect programme in the UK in e-learning (Learndirect), the implementation process on the local level, the process the learner follows in Learndirect courses and how it reflects on the economic development strategy for the North East. The research findings and examples of best practice will also be addressed.

### **7.2.1 Learndirect strategic context:**

The government's e-strategy takes 'e-learning' beyond the classroom, with the message that digital technologies will transform not only the way we learn, but also the way in which we manage learning and indeed public services across the board. It sets out six overarching priorities relating to the use of ICT to raise standards of



information, support, practitioner training, leadership development and personalised learning. Underpinning these is a determination to create a genuinely integrated system that will bring about real improvements in teaching, learning and access, especially for hard-to-reach groups (DfES, 2005).

The 14-19 White Paper: *Improving Literacy and Numeracy* (DfEE 1999c). says that e-learning and broader uses of digital technologies will transform the way skills are acquired. It promotes integration between learning in the classroom and the workplace, for example through the recent appointment of an e-learning champion for the Sector Skills Development Agency, Skills for Business. It also proposes far greater use of e-assessment in order to reduce the burden of assessment and provide more flexible accreditation and progression opportunities for learners (DfEE 1999c). The Learndirect service was developed by the University for Industry (UFI), in partnership with the Government, to deliver workforce development and lifelong learning. The service aims to give more people over the age of 16 the opportunity to learn new skills at every stage throughout their lives (Learndirect 2004).

Learndirect offers people the opportunity to learn at their own time and pace. Over 80 percent of Learndirect courses are online and so enable people to learn wherever they have access to the internet. This may be at work, at home, or at one of the many Learndirect centres across the country. Learndirect operates a network of more than 2,000 online learning centres in England, Wales and Northern Ireland providing access to a range of e-learning opportunities. Learndirect's flexible learning is available to individual adults wanting to improve existing skills or to learn new ones, and to employers looking for an innovative way to develop the skills of their workforce. Since its launch in 2000 1.3 million learners have enrolled on almost three million Learndirect courses. Learndirect offers more than 550 different courses covering a range of subjects, including management, IT, Skills for Life and languages, at all levels (Appendix 4). The Learndirect Skills for Life portfolio includes literacy, numeracy, and English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) (ibid).

### **7.2.2 The Learndirect implementation process:**



On the local level in Tyne and Wear interviews were held with 13 learners, managers and staff in three Learndirect centres (PP training centre, A4e learning centre and Learning Link Centre).

The following are steps that need to be followed when any learner walks into a Learndirect centre: this describes how this process is intended to work, the researcher adds her comments from the research experiences:

#### *Discussion with learner about the his/her needs*

The tutor discusses with the new learner what he/she is looking for. This might include a number of questions:

- What do you want to learn?
- When do you want to learn?
- Which mode of learning – classroom or distance – would suit you?

From the researcher's observations and the learners response in some Learndirect centres this question was not being asked of learners because most of the support staff assume the learners have to be enrolled in courses as soon as possible before changing their mind, even though the course may not be suitable for them.

Can a suitable course be provided here?:

- If the centre knows the learner, such as a learner who came to the centre through "word of mouth", the learner can do the course at home if they have a computer. If the learner is not known to the centre they have to do the course in the centre, so the centre can ensure they complete the course.
- The tutor gives details of all the courses provided by Learndirect, referring to the website or contacting the Learndirect helpline. Here the learner has the right to ask the tutor to inform him/her of all their options. In some Learndirect centres this step did not happen at all. According to learners' responses and the researcher's observations, the support workers did not give the learners the choice, in some cases they chose a course for the learners - especially the funded courses.
- The learner may want a Learndirect product and there may be a taster (a sample of the course) which the learner could try. Having tried the taster, the learner can choose which Learndirect courses suits him or her. Again this step is not always



taken because Learndirect centre staff try to enrol the learner in courses as soon as possible. The learner will then pay for the course. There may be a discount for learners on benefits.

- The learner's details will be entered on the Learndirect registration screen and a local printed form may need to be completed if required for LSC funding. Any tasters the learner has used, such as the introduction CD and the learning skills CD, will also be registered.

#### *Induction session:*

In this step the learner is given a Learndirect folder and learner card. They are also given a personal password to access their learning page. The new learner should be shown the centre's facilities such as crèche if there are any, toilets and refreshments, and should be shown to the computer cluster. The learner is then provided with the induction CD "how to Learndirect". This is usually sent through the post to a learner. Staff will need to tell the learner how to use this and explain how support is provided at the Learndirect centre. They may also need to use the learning skills CD. The learner needs to be shown how to access their own learning page with their username and password and how to use the web-based learning environment. If the learner is studying a course with online support, they may need assistance to ask for help from a specialist online tutor once they have become confident using the learner support environment.

Learners who have registered and used Learndirect before may not need all these steps, but each time a learner engages with Learndirect, these steps should be considered as part of the process of choosing the right learning resources.

#### *Learndirect – Future:*

Learndirect Future is a unique internet – based career, information, advice and guidance service. A learner can access it via the help with learner career section of the Learndirect advice website, or directly by visiting the Learndirect website.

If the centre does not have a futures account, a learner needs to subscribe to set one up which is free. Sponsored subscriptions are available to all learning centres. To establish one of these a learner will need an activation code, available by centre support by emailing UFI. Using the internet, Learndirect-Futures offers access to up-



to-the-minute job information and advice, a national database of learning opportunities, 800 job profiles, direct links to professional bodies, help on improving job search and personal development skills and a CV builder and action –planner.

Based on interviews and the researcher's observations, no learners knew about this, some staff did not even mention it. This is because most people have been sent to the Learndirect centre from Job Centre Plus, Job Finder or employer. So the centre assumes these learners do not need this step.

#### *Motivation and continued learning:*

At the end of a particular learning course or learning plan, it is important that learners experience a sense of satisfaction and achievement. Learners are supposed to be motivated to continue with their learning. There are several strategies which Learndirect staff centres use to build on this and to help the learner commit to further learning. They include: revisiting the learning goal with the learner and reviewing the progress they have made, looking at the learner's achievements, reviewing the learner targets, discussing any career plans the learner may have, looking at other courses the learner may wish to follow, and referring the learner on to a subject specialist if further information is needed.

In this step, it was not very clear what common practice was. The research found that the staff assumed they do this step regularly with the learners, but in other centres they did not. Sometimes it depended on the tutor and sometimes it depended on the learners themselves; if he/she was going to do more courses with the centre the centre were keen to go through this step with the learner.

#### *Learning resources*

As has been pointed out during the research interviews with Learndirect centre managers, staff and tutors, Learndirect aim to make learning engaging, enjoyable, delivered in bite-sized chunks, to have good teaching materials, to work well in an internet- enabled environment, to connect with the lifelong learning log, and to offer learning that will help towards qualifications.

#### *The Learndirect products are:*



- The Learndirect experiences CD: this material is designed to give learners new to Learndirect an introduction to how they can learn with Learndirect and what is on offer. Furthermore, it is designed to enthuse and excite them about learning.
- How to Learndirect CD (for new learners), many Learndirect learners will be returning to learning after a long gap. They probably never managed to perfect their study skills at school or are at least rusty in learning techniques.

Learners at this step will be able to choose which element of their skills they want to brush up on, whether it is perfecting their time management or whether it is finding out about online learning with Learndirect.

Some of these resources are replaced with support workers' presentations and explanations, or sometimes they give the CD to learners for use at home. The learner has the choice at any time to come to the centre to use the CD if he or she has no computer at home.

### *Learndirect methodology*

As has been mentioned by some managers and UFI productivity team, Learndirect was designed using web, multimedia and traditional media to facilitate supported self-study. By putting the choice in the hands of the learner it also attempts to get away from traditional tutor-led modes of learning, and it uses an experiential method of learning.

However some Learndirect centre and staff do not understand this methodology, when asked which methodology they used? They usually do not know the answer. A few people mentioned this methodology and some of the Learndirect programme coordinators in Tyne and Wear confirmed that the learning methodology they use is experiential methods. The important part of this step is that potential learners need to gain an understanding of what Learndirect can do for them and be motivated and excited by these new ways of learning. Many support workers (tutors) in these centres failed to understand this and some do not have the necessary skills to motivate learners.



### *Learndirect course categories*

The Learndirect course categories are divided into three main portfolios:

1. Information and Communication Technology (ICT)
2. Business and Management (BAM)
3. Skills for Life

More illustration of these categories and courses is contained in Appendix (3). The researcher assumes that, because there exists an ever increasing range of information and communication technologies (ICT), the range of options that facilitate learning is likewise increasing. Participants in learning already have many choices in terms of how they engage with ICT, and encounter ICT across a full range of activities in work and leisure. E-learning provides learners with skills in order that they are more open to learning opportunities in work and life that will lead to an increase in their qualifications, which in turn helps with productivity levels and economic development.

#### **7.2.3 The evaluation process in Learndirect courses:**

In the official evaluation process of e-learning there are only 2 steps: First, the initial e-assessment which identifies if the learner has any basic skills problems or if the learner is an ESOL. If the learner is English-speaking the e-assessment identifies which level of courses the learner should start with. In many Learndirect centres this e-assessment is replaced with 2 paper assessments to save the time the learner spends on the assessment. Second is the learning goal which is set by the learner when starting the course, if the learner finished the course on time and achieves his or her learning goals, then the learner is deemed to have achieved his or her course.

These steps do not measure the impact of the course on the learner's themselves or on the learner's career. As the research shows, the learner sometimes sets a goal which does not lead to any skills development at the end of the course which can be used as a sign they have achieved their goal.

#### **7.2.4 E-Learning (Learndirect) findings:**

These findings are based on the research conducted in Tyne and Wear. The researcher contacted 3 providers of Learndirect and conducted 13 interviews (7 learners, 6 staff and tutors). These findings present the positive and negative points in



Learndirect centres and the course system. The findings are concerned with the positive impact of Learndirect, learning methods and style, e learning resources and materials, assessment, supports and guidance and recommendation.

*Impact of learndirect:*

1. E learning can develop positive attitudes and confidence about learning in general and encourage adults to return to learning as a new way of learning.
2. Learndirect learners feel that their ability in using a computer has improved since undertaking their Learndirect courses. Furthermore, some learners had no computer skills before they started the courses, but had become very good. There is a strong indication that Learndirect is providing a positive experience to those with less experience in IT prior to learning, and to those with a need to improve their literacy and numeracy skills.
3. Learners who engage in part time-learning improve their technical ability to use IT equipment and improve their general skills, such as using the internet and sending e-mails. These benefits tend to be greater and more significant among older adults who are returning to learning and are new to computers, rather than those learners under the age of 25.
4. Learndirect has been particularly successful in encouraging learners with weak literacy and numeracy skills to take up learning. It has also encouraged participation by those people who have been away from learning for a long time.
5. E learning enables learners to improve the presentation of their work. This can be particularly valuable for learners who have communication difficulties or disabilities.
6. Effective e-learning can improve achievement and retention rates. Almost all providers are convinced that e-learning is of benefit to learners and enables more effective learning. It is difficult to link improvements in the achievement of qualifications directly to the use of e-learning, although some providers do make direct correlations. Learndirect (E-learning) is at its best where it enables learners of different abilities to make faster or accelerated progress.

*Learning methods and style:*



1. The Learndirect initiative has been extremely successful in attracting learners. Methods used by e-tutors and learning centre facilitators to support learners vary widely in their effectiveness. Email provides virtual learners with available and effective way of communicating with teachers.
2. Generally speaking, learning methodology for adults in the UK is based on the experiential methodology, which depends on “learning by doing” as a part of self –learning.
3. Many providers assess learner’s preferred ways of learning. E-learning expands opportunities for learners and can be used to facilitate learner’s preferences for visual and auditory approaches. Learners begin to have more choices about the course materials they use and how to use them, as well as the time and place of learning.
4. Many teachers replaced the traditional use of whiteboard and OHP with digital projectors and presentation software. In the best cases, teachers look for ways in which the technology can enhance and enliven presentations and stimulate group work and try to give learners various ways of presenting their work. However, in other centres teachers still employ traditional techniques without using any technology.
5. The effectiveness of e-learning varies widely. A key variable is staff experience and motivation; in some Learndirect centres some managers and tutors have no experience or training before they start their job.. Furthermore some did not read the guidance manual.
6. The rationale behind using such methods is that learners are able to work at their own pace and work is designed to suit their individual needs. Learning materials are sometimes used to attract learners to support traditional learning. However, some learners are not able to access all courses with their own PC. Some courses required high speed and special versions of supported software.
7. A weak teacher combined with a good system of e-learning does not mean a transformation to good teaching and learning. Some tutors qualification level is below the courses level, e.g. a tutor sometimes holds a level 2 qualification and he facilitates on courses for level 3 or 4.
8. Tutors provide good individual coaching and helpful advice to individuals or to small groups. Many learners attribute their good skill development and



increased confidence to the secure learning environments in which they work and the teaching methods used. Learners' literacy, numeracy and language skills are insufficiently developed. Many centres do not formally assess learners' language, literacy and numeracy skills to diagnose any difficulties

#### *E-Learning resources and materials:*

1. E-Learning resources include desktop and notebook computers, assistive hard-ware, software, interactive whiteboards, digital cameras, mobile phones, virtual learning environments and networks. Government funding has developed learning infrastructure, there is increasing use of wireless technology.
2. Many learners can now access learning materials from home, although extensive use of this potential is rare, particularly for full-time and younger learners. Often, learners prefer to visit provider's premises to learn, and see learning as disconnected from their home life. Many larger providers have mobile ICT facilities or suites of notebook computers that are taken out into the community. e.g. "the e-Bus, Leek" from Leek College for North Staffordshire. This is one of the solutions to overcome the barriers to the world of life long learning and is encouraging greater participation from learners in learning.
3. Most providers, even the very small ones, now see a computerised management information system as a necessity. In the smaller providers the research finds that the software does not add to the providers' interpretation of learner's progress retention and achievement rates.
4. Adaptive technology and software makes e-learning materials accessible to learners with disabilities. Many software packages are available. These resources have different strengths and weaknesses but all rely on the teacher to ensure that they are used appropriately to have the maximum positive effect on the learner.

#### *Assessment and learner plan*

1. Learners in foundation literacy and numeracy classes enjoy an e-learning – based approach to assessment that lets them practise and retake tests.



- Feedback through e-learning can be anonymous and learners find this less daunting. However, some learners still prefer face to face learning classes.
2. Good use of self-assessment by learners is often part of the online learning programme, enabling them to gauge their own progress.
  3. Well-designed e-learning assessments should be compatible with any assistive technologies learners choose to use.
  4. Well-designed e-learning systems in the Individual Learner Record (ILR) should keep a record of the learner's activities, e.g. if the learner diagnoses shows that the learners level in numeracy or literacy is at level 2, and he enrolled in level 2 courses, once he has completed the course he should not be enrolled on a level 1 courses as happens in some instances.
  5. In some providers, the use of IAG (Induction and Guidance or Information and Guidance) session is poor and is just for enrolling learners in the to courses rather than discussing the learner needs and his rights.
  6. Some providers replaced the e-assessment with paper assessment because it is time consuming. However, some providers insisted on doing the e-assessment because it helps learners if they have no IT skills and it helps learners later on to work more easily on courses.
  7. The planning and coordination of learners' programmes are poor. Some learners do not have an individual learning plan, and are unaware of the requirements of the qualifications they are working towards. Progress and achievement are not monitored or analysed, and for most learners progress reviews do not take place. Employers have little involvement.
  8. Learndirect providers began by concentrating on enrolments to ensure that they achieved their funding targets. Many learners enrolled on courses which were relatively short of hours and did not lead directly to an accredited qualification.

#### *The support, guidance and knowledge by centres in e-learning*

1. Many providers have set up websites or have produced CD-Rom to provide interesting and attractive information guidance about available training. Use of IT is rare however; it seems that the only provider do evaluating between the organisation the research contact with is the colleges.



2. There are some clients in job centre plus funded courses or even job centre itself funded courses for job search.
3. In some Learndirect centres the skills for life provision is facing difficulty in supporting special courses related to numeracy, literacy and language development because of a lack of staff expertise and confidence.
4. Accessibility to a learning centre for people with mobility difficulties is often good.
5. There is little evidence of providers carrying out any form of cost-benefit analysis when managing e-learning.
6. Usually the learner knows about a Learndirect centre by “word of mouth” , from the city council or/and rurally from the centre website (some Learndirect have moved their location to another location without changing their address on the Learndirect website). Also learners might know about the Learndirect centres from the TV.

In summary, the Learndirect scheme is a good scheme but it seems not to fit with all of the qualification levels and not all the providers have qualified people to deliver the programme. The research shows that the programme is not serving people under level 2 and 3 qualifications, but still has other benefits which are helping learners to eliminate illiteracy in ICT, change their image about learning in general and gives them the confidence they need to start their learning plan. Also it seems the programme is helping in overcoming unemployment, because it helps people find employment and helps those already in employment to gain more qualifications.

#### **7.2.5 Best practices in E-Learning**

##### *Attracting learners to do learning courses - PP Training Ltd*

This case has been chosen as an example of best practice, based on its success in attracting learners to enrol on courses in Learndirect programmes. This centre has a huge amount of learners from all qualification levels.

The PP Training Company was established in the late 1990s, its mission is “To assist and support individuals, organisations and groups to recognise their full potential through the provision of high quality, cost effective and relevant training and learning opportunities” (PP 2006). The company is working as a leading and



recognised provider of specialist, industrial learning programmes, and has acquired an enviable reputation for delivering the highest possible standards of vocational courses. Working with private and corporate clients across a range of sectors, the organisation has guided company employees, unemployed people and individuals wishing to retrain, to great success following the completion of specialised courses.

Continuous investment in the latest equipment, as well as staff development, has allowed the company to provide learners with the most comprehensive and up-to-date facilities. These include dedicated IT suites with the computer software and broadband internet access, fully equipped study rooms and a purpose built factory floor with fork-lift truck driving areas to provide more training courses on the fork-lift skills as skills required in the local market.

All courses can be tailored to meet specific and individual needs, and are delivered from the company's learning centres across the region, or alternatively, 'on-the-job' at an employer's workplace. Weekend training services are also provided.

*The Learndirect centre as an employer and learning organisation:*

The company is a leading provider of vocational training to adults and young people within industry and individuals wishing to train in the North East of England. The company employs 25 staff excluding the manager. The company working in 3 dimensions are:

*Learndirect:* the company is part of four geographical (Tyne and Wear, Northumberland, Tees Valley and Durham) hubs and three sector hubs (CITB, Lantra and Energy & Utilities). The company receives revenue from each hub to deliver Learndirect to companies and individuals. Most learning activities take place at the centre in a deprived area of South Shields, but the company also set up learning centres within other companies in Gateshead, South Shields, Blaydon, Birtley, Newcastle upon Tyne and York and North Yorkshire and the company's plan is to cover more.

*NVQ:* the company have a contract with LSC to deliver NVQ in Tyne and Wear, Northumberland and North Yorkshire. The company delivers NVQ training courses in warehouses and performing manufacturing operations.



*Business and Management conference centre:* the company is used to deliver various accredited courses and team learners and managers within companies and courses associated with Learndirect but also to bring revenue into the business from the hire of conference rooms. The research considered the company to be an example of best practice because of the way it attracted learners to its courses.

#### *Practices/Approaches to community learning*

*What practices and approaches contribute to the development of skills and learning in the community?*

1. The company advertise in the local newspapers about the learning opportunities in the learning centre, and present good case studies in the newspapers to encourage others to come to do courses to help them to improve their skills and suggest it will increase their income.
2. The company tries to encourage individuals to do courses to improve their skills such as basic skills courses of to improve their qualification skills and courses toward level 2 and 3 qualifications.
3. The company as an employer tries to encourage individuals to learn by highlighting the fact they have employed some learners within the company.
4. The company encourage their staff to encourage their relatives and friends to attend courses, especially those without level 2 or 3 qualifications.
5. The training company also encourages learners who attend courses to recommend courses to their friends and relatives.

#### *Learning lessons from this case study*

*Best practice in attracting the learners to do Learndirect courses:*

The company realised many learners do not enrol on courses after completing the assessment, so they replaced the computer assessment, which used to take around 2-3 hours, with a 2 paper evaluation test. Their hope is that this will encourage more people to enrol on courses. In order to attract learners to enrol on courses, they must derive some benefit from the course. Some learners feel a course will help them in their job search but others feel it is too time consuming. The centre counteracts this by giving them expenses for transportation and lunch. The centre will do that until the learner discovers the benefits of doing a course and enrolls on more courses.



For the employee learners, it is enough to convince employers that these courses will help their staff to be more productive, so the company go to the learners in their workplace. Some workplaces do not have computer facilities so the company provides learners during the course with mobile computers to help them to do courses during working hours.

## **7.3 WORK-BASED LEARNING**

### **7.3.1 The strategic context**

Since 2001 the number of adults in the workforce aged 16-18 years without a level 2 qualification has reduced from 7.1 to 6.8 million. This is on line to meet the government target of a 40% reduction in adults in the workforce without a level 2 qualification by 2010 (DFES 2004).

The 2005 Skills Strategy puts employers at centre-stage in the drive to continue making inroads into the UK's chronic skill deficiencies, particularly in basic skills and in technical, IT and craft skills. Proposals include a new National Employer Training Programme (NETP) to deliver free work-based training up to Level 2, £40 million of investment over two years for pilot provision at higher technician level, and the introduction of Skills Academies catering for the specific training needs of individual sectors of the economy, through formal Sector Skills Agreements (DFES 2005c).

Work-Based Learning (WBL) is the generic title for the various programmes the LSC provides for young people aged up to 24 years through the work based route. These programmes enable young people to gain recognised vocational qualifications at foundation and advanced level through training in the workplace and off the job. Work-Based Learning for adults is a training programme for those unemployed and aged 25 and over. This provision is the responsibility of job centre in collaboration with other local partners.

In recent years, work-based learning has figured in UK government policy debates as a significant element of continuing professional development and lifelong learning.



One result has been that higher education institutions have been encouraged to use the mechanisms available to them to give priority to widening participation, enabling adult students to benefit from HE opportunities within institutions including through Work-Based Learning. Dearing (1997), for example, discussed the need for part-time modes of continuing professional development, and for courses carried out in collaboration with employers. At a pragmatic level, the delivery of learning into the workplace (much of it via the Internet) will be one manifestation of the University for Industry, launched in the UK in the year 2000.

There is still some confusion, however, as to what exactly constitutes learning in the workplace. In terms of Work-Based Learning that is formally assessed and accredited, Ebbutt (1996) suggests a classification scheme constituting four modes:

*Work-Based Learning as Access or Accelerated Access*, achieved mainly through the Accreditation of Prior Experiential Learning (APEL). Here, learners' experience is recognised by an institution of higher education, either to gain access to that institution, or as a means of gaining credit and remission from parts of a programme.

*Work-Based Learning as Initial Professional Preparation*, where full-time students gain access to learning in an industrial, commercial or service workplace as an element of their degree programme.

*Work-Based Learning as General Preparation for the Real World*, where a minority, but increasing number, of degree courses incorporate the development of core or transferable skills such as numeracy, communication, and problem-solving to prepare students for the world of work.

*Work-Based Learning as the major constituent of a programme of study*, where students are full-time employees and most of the research-based fieldwork is carried out in the student's own workplace. The student group meets regularly with tutors to discuss the outcomes of their action plan implementation, share problems and develop thinking. The fourth mode is the focus of this research on college-based learners in Social Care courses.



Work Based Learning for Adults is a positive way to train or gain valuable work experience that is directly related to the job the learner want to do and aims to:

- help unemployed people move into sustained employment;
- help long term unemployed people to gain the occupational skills needed to fill recognised local skill shortages and;
- enable long term unemployed people to make a success of self-employment;

The programme aims to help unemployed people back into work through training and work experience for aged 25 or above. There are 25 sectors services by the scheme mentioned in previous chapter 6.

Work-based learning, then, operates at both formal and non-formal levels within the workplace, and when non-formal, often relies on networks and interactions with people both within and outside the organisation to facilitate new learning. The learning itself is often goal and work orientated. It is also often problem-centred and involves experimentation and trying things out. It may require both personal reflection on the outcomes and dialogue and feedback from others including colleagues and managers. It may include the taking of formally accredited programmes of study at an institution of higher education, and may use APEL as an accreditation and learning vehicle. Many elements just described have been formalised into what has become known as Action Learning which may be utilised informally amongst interested work groups to facilitate learning and tackle problems, or as part of a formal, learning programme, perhaps delivered and accredited by a college or university.

### **7.3.2 The Work-Based Learning implementation process**

This section looks at the implementation of work based learning approach and how this can impact on the economic development strategy. It will introduce the research findings based on research interviews analysis. This research has focused on the health, public services and care sector in two main areas; Childcare (Early Years), and Social Care.

*Early Years CCLD (Child Care and Learning and Development) - Gateshead College*



The research conducted 9 interviews (3 staff members in the CCLD course and 6 learners in the course of CCLD ).

The Early Years course in Gateshead College is Work Based Learning. There are 59 learners altogether on work based learning towards NVQ44 at level 2 and 15 toward level 3. In Early Years (Child Care and Learning and Development) all learners at NVQ level 2 and 3 are funded by the Learning and Skills Council (LSC) or funded through government entitlement, partnership, college and themselves; employers do not fund this course. In level 2, 4 learners are employed and 2 learners are on placement (this is the interview sample) Learners attend for 3 hours per week for 36 weeks during 12 months, but for level 3 NVQ (Equivalent to A levels) attendance is over 24 months. Most of the sessions at college are theory, however learners must work in a child care setting for one or two days a week?

All learners have access to a good variety of sources at college to support the learning sessions. The library contains a wide selection of relevant books and articles and there are sufficient copies for the number of learners on the programme. Also computers are available to learners. Learners benefit through working in a childcare setting one day a week as it helps them to apply the theory learnt in college in practice . Feedback between lecturers and learners is part of the sessions.

#### *Health and Social Care course - Newcastle College*

The research conducted 8 interviews (3 staff members in the Social Care course and 5 learners in the course of Social Care )

There are 11 modules in the health and care course, these are: controlling infection, kitchen practice, medicines, care skills, positive dementia care, drugs awareness, effective customer care, infection control, safe handling of medicines, safety compliance, and supervisory development. Each module has its own certificate and takes from 9 to 11 hours. Three hours are taken in an induction session for learners, which is presented by the instructor (Course tutor). The course is a distance learning course. There are 6 learners in this course within “St Mary Magdalena” (a care home, this courses only running in the employer place only for those 6 learners) 5 learners out of 6 are doing a certificate in positive dementia care, which takes 11 hours, and 1



learner is doing a certificate in the safe handling of medicines. Most of the modules mentioned above are covered in the course toward NVQ level 2. However, if any learner does not cover all these modules during his /her NVQ level 2 he/she has to make up what he/she has missed.

Each module has its own aims and objectives. The course is funded by the LSC. Some employers pay for the course, if the course goes towards NVQ level 3 or above. However all courses toward NVQ level 2 are funded by government via the LSC. The processes which learners go through are:

1. Initial assessment test for literacy for 20 min (paper based)
2. Work according to action plans
3. Complete work-based (project/ activity)
4. Study for examination
5. Complete course (approx. 12 weeks)

If the learner has difficulty with reading and writing, the college with the employer will appoint a mentor for the learner. The mentor sits with the learner at the exam and can be appointed from the learner's company or the college. The course instructor's role is to help and support learners by giving the course induction; telephone support or one to one support sessions; assessing workbooks and feedback and invigilating at the exam. The advantages of this kind of course are that:

- It gives learners the chance to be independent and work at self learning because the course is not dependent on the classroom but on the advice and guidance of the instructor; it teaches self-directed learning.
- The instructor goes to the learner's workplace to save their time and being in the workplace means they can implement their learning action plan. It also gives the instructor the chance to monitor and guide the learner, based on practice.
- Most learners on this course are employed so it is good opportunity to mix theory and practice, this makes a good link between what the learners study and what they do in employment. Their action plan is based on their duties in the workplace.



- The course delivery is based on employer request, which is a step forward in achieving a culture of learning in the workplace. The employer meets their staff's needs with the learning courses they require and gives them the opportunity to improved their skills and knowledge.

### *Health and Care Course in Gateshead College*

This Work-Based Learning course focuses on an NVQ at level 2 in the care sector. 59 candidates applied to the courses and 9 were selected via assessment and interview. All 9 learners are funded by Learning and Skills Council LSC going back to point raised by Lorna – is this national - LSC or LLSC through local authorities. 8 learners are on a work placement and 1 learner is working. They attend college one day every week for 6 hours for theory sessions, and 24 hours in working place. The learners are paid for 30 hours per week. Most learners do induction courses in the first week of the course in areas such as first aid, health and safety and moving and handling. Assessment through formal examination takes place at college.

Learners have access to a good variety of resources at college to support the learning sessions. The library contains a wide selection of relevant books and there are sufficient copies for the number of learners. Resources at work are good, workplace supervisors are skilful, and support and coaching learners with enthusiasm. Theory sessions link well to practices at work. Theory sessions are well structured challenging and informative. Feedback between lecturers and learners is frequent.

The strongest points are high quality of learning resources, good attendance and achievement of learners on the programme, well-planned and expertly delivered theory sessions, good individual coaching for learners and good tutor supports for learners. Most learners have been sent by the job centre.

The processes which the learner goes through are:

1. Learner fills in application form
2. Interview
3. 2 references sought
4. Decision taken who accepted in the course



5. Start the course and placement in work place

6. Apply for Criminal Record Bureau (CRB)

Most learners required a CRB check, which takes between 1 and 6 weeks and proves the learner has not had a criminal record in the last 5 years. If the learner has a criminal record he or she is stopped from doing the course because the learner not eligible for the job. However, if he or she does not have a criminal record, the learner continues on the course.

The work based learning program itself is the direct way to raise qualifications, one of the main objectives in the economic strategy for North East 2003-2006 and the new REC 2006.

### **7.3.3 The evaluation process in Work-based learning:**

There are 3 main steps in the evaluation of work based learning courses. First, the initial assessment and interview. In this step the college identifies if the learner has literacy basic skills needs (to arrange more support). In some courses, such as health care, the college arranges an interview for the learner. The second step occurs during the sessions if the course is class based, or during the tutor follow up in the work place session if the course is distance learning. With distance learning there is an action plan for the learner, the tutor uses this as an evaluation tool to chart the progress of the learner and to see the learner's capacity to implement what he/she has learned putting theory into practice. The third step is that, by the end of the course the learner is set a final test, which the learner can pass or fail. These steps are followed by assessors who evaluate the learner and decide when the learner is able to take the final qualification.

### **7.3.4 Research findings in Work based Learning:**

These findings are based on the research conducted in Tyne and Wear for the Social Care and Early Years. The researcher contacted 2 providers of the work based learning training programmes (Newcastle College and Gateshead College) and 3 employers (care home nursery and company for training). The researcher interviewed 35 interviewees (22 learners and 13 members of staff and managers in Social Care and Early Years sector). The learners in work based learning schemes in 2 main



sectors are: childcare and health and social care sectors. The findings introduced here were the product of visits and conducted interviews and focus group discussion at Newcastle and Gateshead Colleges with learners and employers in the work place or on the course at college and based on the researcher's observations in 2 learning sessions in the classroom and 3 sessions in the work place. These findings present the advantages, disadvantages and impact of work based learning programmes in Tyne & Wear. The findings are divided into 4 main divisions; firstly based on employers; secondly based on employees (learners), thirdly based on providers and finally, teaching and materials.

#### Employers in Social Care and Early Years sectors

1. For the learners in the care sector, there is an over-reliance on written evidence to support the background knowledge for the NVQ. Newcastle College recognized this weakness and has introduced actions to reduce learner's workload and to give support in Basic Skills for learners who have literacy problem. For example, more diverse methods of assessment are being used.
2. Learners have very effective care and support from their employer and other staff. In addition some members of staff worked as mentor to the learners.
3. Most employers prefer the providers who were mobile and give training courses in the work place.
4. Most employers encourage their staff to take courses in the health and care sector, especially if they do not have to pay for these courses and they will not affect their working hours.
5. In the Early Years courses employers do not pay the staff for this training, but the courses are funded through other sources.
6. The problem has been highlighted by employers in the health and care sector that, although there is a high demand in the job there is a shortage in qualifications.

#### Employees (learners) in Social Care and Early Years sectors

1. Learners develop good skills and a greater level of understanding of care and childcare theory in the workplace. The increase in their knowledge and skills



- has improved their own practice. Employers recognise and appreciate the increased level of competence.
2. Many learners, if they are not working, have placements in school and nurseries in the Early Years sector and care homes in the Social Care sector.
  3. Employees leave the job after they start the course because they discover they have to study courses outside working hours. Furthermore, the wage for the job in health and social care is more than in the private sector, e.g. the wage per hour in Health and Social care in the public sector is £7 and in the private sector it is £5.
  4. Most employees (or learners) gained their job via friends or relatives “word of mouth”, no one knew about the job through job searching. No one is thinking of changing career.
  5. Most of the learning done in the courses is based on their manager’s recommendation, around 2 in every 10 learners found the course for their own self development and to help them change their career.
  6. Most learners prefer courses in class because they gain more support and socialise with their peers. Some prefer to take part of their course using a computer.
  7. In the Early Years course most of the learners are funded from the Early Years fund and they pay the rest of the money. The course costs £700 if it is studied at home, and £370 if the learners come to the college classes. The Early Years fund provided the learners with £300 and the learners pay the remainder.
  8. Learners who attend classes at the college understand their course subject and are able to explain more about their course than learners who are doing the courses through distance learning.
  9. Learners in care courses complain about Criminal Records Bureau (CRB) because it takes 6 weeks and it costs £40.
  10. Learners require a new CRB for every new job.
  11. There is a good retention rate and good achievement of technical certificates. Learners who have previously not achieved well are making significant progress. Most learners achieve a qualification that will help them to improve their career.



12. Most learners prefer learning in the classroom with a lecturer rather than self study, because they feel that it gives them more support and more understanding to share ideas with others. They also claim it helps them to improve their teamwork in the class and gives them more confidence.

#### Providers for learning in Social Care and Early Years sector

1. At Gateshead and Newcastle College self assessment process is very well established. It is central to their approach to continuous quality improvement and includes feedback from staff, learners and employers. The process is critical and takes account of those aspects of provision which have an effect on the learners.
2. Colleges are the only providers who can go to a work place to give training (although it is very expensive) even if the course is only for a single learner. However, the private provider would not give training for one learner and asked the employer to send the employee to the provider.
3. Instructors or teachers are well trained and have good experience compared with private providers.
4. College is able to make the marriage between work-based learning courses and basic skills courses if they find the learner has some problems in literacy.
5. Most learners in work-based learning toward level 2 qualification courses are funded by different sources such as LSC, government entitlement, Early Years, local authorities, etc.
6. Learners in work-based learning towards level 2 qualification who are on placement are paid the minimum wage, £5.05 per hour for 30 hours per week.

#### Teaching support and materials in Social Care and Early Years sector Courses

1. Support for learners is good. Tutors and assessors have a good understanding of individual learners' needs. They provide pastoral support for learners and are quick to respond to any personal or other difficulties that may occur. Some tutors give learners their telephone number and frequently receive calls from them between assessment visits. Learners are well supported with work for technical certificates.
2. The guidance and support is very good. Learners attend a comprehensive induction for a week and there are often weekly visits. For assessment and



monitoring in the workplace additional individual support sessions are also available. Instructor and tutors respond very quickly to the needs of the learners and their employer. Supervisors are very positive and support the learners to complete their qualifications.

3. The assessment process is good. Observation in the workplace is frequent and well planned with good feedback. Alternative methods of assessment are used for learners who have difficulty with written work.
4. The development of learners literacy and numeracy skills is good. Support for literacy and numeracy is good. Individual needs are identified by initial assessment and recorded on the individual learning plan. Learners receive appropriate support for literacy and numeracy from the instructor or tutors in the learner and their employer happy with that support.
5. Off-the-job training is good; learners are well motivated and contribute enthusiastically to discussions. The learning sessions are carefully planned to support the requirements of the technical certificate. Learning sessions are now planned to include work relevant to the achievement of key skills.
6. Although some learners might face problems with literacy, the materials for health and care courses require significant skills in reading.
7. Some learners are not reading the materials themselves.
8. Although many learners prefer classes based learning because it helps them to ask more questions, the course for distance learner does not offer this choice.

In summary, the Work Based Learning (WBL) programme that the researcher contacted included different modules of learning methods in different places such as nurseries for early learning. Generally, the WBL courses, especially in Social Care and Early Years sectors, provide the learners with adequate skills for working in their jobs. The researcher contacted employees and employers in two places, a nursery and a care home, and the researcher contacted learners from both courses in college and workplaces. The fourth mode was WBL as the major constituent of a programme of study; the researcher contacted the learners in nursery and the training company. In this course the learners meet with their tutors every 2 weeks to discuss their action plan in the workplace and by the end of the course they gain qualification toward level 2 or 3.



The research shows that, most of the sample of learners in Social Care and Early Years sector prefer the course that was based in the classroom because it helped them to be more interactive as a team and to gain more experience from each other; it helped if they had any questions and they felt there was more support in the classroom than in the distance or accredited courses.

### **7.3.5 Best practices in Work-Based Learning**

#### *Case one: Sand Writer project in South Tyneside*

This case is considered as a best practice example in encouraging people under level 2 qualification to engaged in community development project like Sand Writer to improve their qualification and skills by on job training.

The Sand Writer Project is a work-based training scheme which takes people from the local community and trains them to work as volunteer mentors. It started in 2004 as a result of the merging of 2 earlier projects. Once trained, mentors are matched with a young person aged between 8 and 17 years old. Often referred by the YOS (Youth Opportunity Scheme), many of these young people have offended, or are considered to be at risk of offending.

Volunteers usually commit to the scheme for at least one year. During that time, they are expected to have two mentoring relationships lasting up to 6 months each. Mentors are there to support their mentee by listening to them, helping them to identify and reach their specified goal, assisting them to find alternative ways to spend their time and to be a positive role model for them.

Initial training for mentors lasts 36 hours for which a certificate of attendance is awarded, then further training is offered throughout the year. A portfolio of experience and training is compiled during the year, which is submitted for external evaluation and accredited through the Open College Network. This is a nationally recognised qualification in ‘Mentoring for Young People’, equivalent to an NVQ level 2. Some mentors are trained in basic skills awareness and support strategies in order for them to assist their young person with literacy and numeracy skills. Additional training includes Child Protection, Sexual Health, First Aid and Drugs Awareness.



*Practices/Approaches to community learning (What practices and approaches contribute to the development of skills and learning in the Tyneside community?)*

Volunteering as a mentor can provide valuable experience to those looking for paid employment working with young people. All volunteers are supported and encouraged to reach their full potential both personally and professionally. To that aim, progression is available to undertake paid support work for young people with other agencies, or to become a paid seasonal supervisor to other mentors, this is the first objective for the project. the second objective to the project is to change the behaviour of the mentees by directing them to integrated within the community to grow up normally and to be useful to the community.

People becoming a volunteer mentor should be over 18, with a genuine interest in helping young people. They should be able to commit themselves to approximately 2 hours a week after training, most of which will be evenings or weekends. They should be non-judgemental, approachable and flexible. Mentors are expected to attend one group supervision session each month where they will receive support, guidance and notice of training and other events or activities. All mentors must obtain a Criminal Records Bureau (CRB) disclosure certificate before they will be allowed to work unsupervised with a young person.

The example below will present an individual case of self directed learning and career progression in through the Sand Writer Mentoring Project

“Looking for Learning” (Case study)



“Widening my horizons to become the best person I can be”

My name is Anne Hodgson, I am married I have 2 daughters, one is 16 years old and one is 6 years old. I am working as a coordinator in SandWriter Mentoring Project in South Tyneside. My story goes like this:

I did fairly well in school. My family always supported me and they had high hopes for me. I finished my GCSE's and I became a teenager, which can be a difficult time for any girl. I was studying for 'A' levels, but I did not take the final exams. With the



arrogance of youth, I felt that I would manage just as well without certificates to prove my intelligence. I decided I needed to earn some money, so I worked part-time in a local pub. It was a brilliant experience, and really enhanced my social skills, but I knew it was only a short-term solution. When I was very young I dreamed of being a physiotherapist. Although my career ambitions had changed, I realised that I did still have some ambition and a succession of part-time jobs just wouldn't be enough for me. I began searching for something interesting to learn. I know now that I was actually learning all the time. We all learn new things every day, we just aren't aware of all that information being absorbed.

In October 1994 moved to Chester near North Wales, I quickly managed to find a job in the Magistrate's Office. From there I moved into the Probate Registry. I met and married my first husband then moved back to South Tyneside. I was arranging funerals for a local funeral director when I discovered I was pregnant. Unfortunately, my husband and I divorced shortly after our daughter was born. I had been involved in voluntary work for a variety of organisations, but I needed to work to provide for my daughter and myself.



I wanted to give my daughter the same kind of wonderful childhood that I had been privileged enough to have. In order for us to raise our standard of living, I decided to return to college and obtain the qualifications necessary to earn a good wage. I have always enjoyed the independence and freedom that going out to work gives me, as well as the social life that goes with it. I didn't want to live on state benefits if I could help it.

In 1992 I began working for South Tyneside Council and Newcastle City Council as a registrar of births, deaths and marriages. At first I found this work stimulating and enjoyable, but after 6 years the novelty had worn off and once again I felt I needed the challenge of a new career. In 1998 I remarried and had my second daughter in 1999; I studied Youth and Community Work with South Tyneside Council and



continued to work as a volunteer with various youth projects. While I was on the course, one of the other students asked me if I enjoyed this work. I said I had done a lot of youth work before and I was looking for something different. She told me I should contact Ian Robson at the Mentoring Scheme.

In September 2000, I contacted Ian and I was offered a place on the training to become a volunteer mentor. Once I was qualified, I was offered some paid seasonal work with the Constructive Activities Section. The co-ordinator said they had very little provision for girls and asked if I would be willing to set up a girls group. I formed the group and began by encouraging the girls to form a group identity by creating a name and a logo. We worked as a team to plan activities and visits to various places around the area that they had never visited before, such as Metro Control, the Discovery Museum, Phab Club and the Millennium Bridge. This was such a fulfilling experience, but the most satisfaction came from knowing that I could work in a job I loved and be paid for it. I was soon offered more paid work as a sessional supervisor to other mentors. This progression helped to build my confidence, so that when a Project Worker was needed to help run a mentoring scheme focussing on basic skills, I felt competent enough to apply for the post. Once I had worked in this project for a year, management reviewed my post and decided I had developed the project well and I was working at a level higher than Project Worker so I was promoted to Project Co-ordinator. I went back to college a couple of years ago and obtained a certificate in education for further education, so I am now a qualified trainer.

I can honestly say that without all the additional learning I undertook at college, I would never have achieved so much in a job I love. Learning is an integral part of my life now. I have studied so many interesting subjects such as sign language for the deaf, politics, sociology, computer technology, even pottery. I am enrolled on a course to train as a literacy specialist at Sunderland University in September, which will open up even more job opportunities to me. It sounds very interesting so I'm really looking forward to starting.

I believe that life is just one long learning curve and there's so much I still don't know, I see no reason to stop now."



*Comment on the case as best practices:*

*What lessons can be drawn from the case study to help in the future designing of similar project?*

*For Community Organisations:*

- Increased investment in the development of citizen-based leadership, the volunteers and the staff of NGOs and designing project has 2 objectives such as Sand Writer the project has the objective of improving qualifications for the unemployed by giving them skills through training and directing of the mentees to be part of the community and to interact positively with the community.
- Expand co-operation between NGOs from different sectors to enhance the inclusiveness and relevance of their efforts, as this case study has highlighted. The cooperation between different NGOs and authorities shown in this case study should be replicated.

*For Educational Institutions and learning organisations in the community*

- Democratising learning by engaging in real partnerships with communities and their grass roots development organisations to take learning to those with least opportunities and encourages more learners to become like the case presented above and to offers more opportunities for other people in the community.

*For Governments:*

- Change the relationship of government with communities projects and scheme and give more support and enhance for the project such as the Sand Writer project by moving towards a stewardship role; enabling communities to create their own solutions and provide stable long-term funding based on local indicators of need.
- Improve funding facilities for the community project related to learning.
- Invest in community-based lifelong learning and place a priority on community learning based on informal, experiential and innovative learning practices that help build a community learning culture for people to advance individual, family and community skills and capacities.

## Conclusion



This chapter has given an account of different learning approaches that the UK government use to improve the qualification skills in the Tyne and Wear. The three learning approaches discussed are Basic Skills, E Learning and Work-Based Learning in the sectors of Social Care and Early Years. In addition, the main findings in this research study were introduced in this chapter for the three different learning approaches.

The research shows that it seems the UK government work very hard in their strategy on three main levels to improve qualification skills for the workforce nationally and locally. These three levels are :

1. developing a new policy and raising the minimum qualification for employability to level 2 and in some jobs to level 3. The strategy announces a new entitlement enabling any adult in the labour force without a full level qualification to have access to free learning achieve it and increased support for level 3 training in areas of sectoral or regional skills priorities. (Ufi 2005).
2. encouraging some employers to support their staff who did not have a level 2 qualification to raise their qualifications to levels 2 and 3.
3. giving funding support, advice and information for adults to improve their qualification. The UK government funded all the courses toward level 2 free and level 3 for the public sector.

The three learning approaches (Basic Skills, E-learning and Work Based Learning) have been presented and examined in this chapter and it seems from the research study that basic skills are considered as the first step in the learning journey for someone without a level 2 qualification. This is because these are the basic skills a learner needs to be able to take advantage of different learning opportunities. In e-learning the individual will be more open to Information Communication Technology (ICT) and it will prepare the learner for gaining further skills. ICT helps learners to be more productive, which will lead to economic development. Work-Based Learning was introduced as the third approach to learning for the improvement of the Tyne and Wear workforce's skills. Based on the studying of these three approaches, the next chapter will make recommendations and outline the strengths and weaknesses of the approaches.



# **CHAPTER 8**

## **RECOMMENDATIONS AND**

### **CONCLUSIONS TO THE FIRST PART OF**

### **THE STUDY**

The research field work case study results were outlined in chapters 6 and 7, which examined what the actual process, findings and best practices for the three learning approaches were. This chapter, based on the field work in England, aims to discuss four main issues

1. Barriers,
2. Motivation,
3. Strengths, weaknesses and recommendations,
4. Evaluation, and
5. Overall conclusions

#### **8.1 BARRIERS TO LEARNING**

The barriers presented in this part of the study are as a result of the research interviews, these barriers deal with the learning in general in Tyne and Wear. There is a large body of literature on the factors associated with non-participation in learning (Bridge and Salt, 1992). Cantor (1992, p39) also points out that adults have different barriers than children on their way to learning. Some of these potential barriers might include other responsibilities (families, careers, social commitments); lack of time; lack of money; lack of child care; scheduling problems; transportation problems; insufficient confidence; having to learn because told to by a boss but not interested or ready. These are the employees reasons for not participating in learning, for example, one of the interviewees stated that she preferred living on benefits rather than work because when she tried to work she found that her wage was not enough after paying nursery costs, and what she gained from the benefits will be better without working or putting the children in the nursery. Also from the researcher's own experiences of putting children in the nursery it is very expensive.



Responsibility "for childcare is widely recognised as a factor constraining participation" (Coffield 2000:p4). The most relevant reason concerns the effects on women of trying to combine paid work with family commitments and responsibilities (Coffield 2000). From the perspective of human capital theory, the most useful two aspects influence the opportunities that people perceive to be open to them, and their response to those opportunities. The way in which conflict between roles influences both perceptions and responses has been of practical interest (ibid).

For adults wishing to gain new skills as well as those adults with few or no qualifications, access to affordable education and training opportunities can offer a route out of poverty, which means improvement of their economic situation. However, many adult and community learning providers still have difficulty attracting and retaining adult learners.

Lack of confidence in undertaking learning can be a barrier, especially if this leaning leads to exams or assessment, one of the research interviewees was an example of this. The interviewee was a lecturer in a college and, during one class, the OFESTD inspectors visited her class. The inspector asked about the level of the learners in class, so he asked one of the learners to fill in an evaluation form. The learner told him he would take the form home to fill it in, but the inspector ask him to fill it now. The learner was very embarrassed because he had a problem in spelling, and he did not come to the course again. (Although the tutor encouraged the learner to come to the classes and the tutor planned to convince him to take a basic skills course in the college).

Negative experiences from the past were important factors in dissuading people from learning or undertaking learning in the future. As mentioned by one of the research interviewees (a learner); "I did not think I can complete again in the college, because my bad memory from my tutor, she used to push us to do what she wanted, not what we wanted". On the positive side, often family members were a significant influence. For example, one of Learndirect centre learner's said, "my kids encouraged me to do more courses by asking me", "Do you have course today, you must go to your course" and they kept asking me about something to do with the



computer. Although before I was not able to switch the PC off”. However, she is now finishing her European Security Driving License ESDL training course.

From the employer perspective, some employees and most interviewees in the research stated that they felt encouraged by their employer. However, some employees were discouraged from undertaking learning by their employer, while others were discouraged by their previous experiences.

If we sum up the personal barriers to learning we can state they are:

- A fear that learning will be like the negative experiences of school, for example a structured classroom atmosphere, unsupportive teachers, big classes and the feeling of being left behind.
- Lack of self-confidence- a fear that the course will be too difficult, others will be more knowledgeable, the practicalities of where to go and the general fear of failure.
- In addition there are the other practical day-to-day barriers that are common to all learners such as work commitments, child-care commitments and perceptions of costs.

## **8.2 MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING**

Adults typically have different motivations for learning than children such as those pointed out by Cantor (1992, 37-38) which can be divided into self-development and employer requirements. Generally speaking, in the Tyne and Wear area the research shows that there are a number of reasons why people may be pushed or encouraged into learning.

Employment need is one of the biggest reasons that encourage people to return to learning, to look for a better job with a recognised certificate gained by the end of the course and /or gaining more money, needing to write a CV and covering letter or to fill out an application form. Some learners need to meet the new requirements of their current job, or do a literacy or numeracy course before starting other vocational courses.



A life change is another big reason for learning. A learner needs to be able to deal with bills and forms, or to pass the written element of the driving test, to improve conversation skills and therefore be able to participate more fully in social situations. Another need relates to self esteem and confidence, the learner needs to get more out of life, to improve themselves, by gaining knowledge and skills. More confidence will help learners to attend interviews (as a very important step in applying for a job) and present themselves to get the job.

### **8.3 STRENGTHS, WEAKNESSES AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE THREE LEARNING APPROACHES:**

This part of the chapter will present the strengths and weaknesses of each learning approach the research investigated, and make recommendations for each learning approach..

#### **8.3.1 Lifelong Learning (Basic Skills)**

##### *Strengths*

1. Interaction between learners in literacy and numeracy classroom, sharing skills, exchanging ideas and more interaction in social life that leads to improved communication skills for learners to participate more in learning. Many learners missed the communication skills and presentation skills, the classroom improves these skills.
2. Very good qualified teachers for basic skills (numeracy and literacy), although there is a shortage in the supply of qualified teacher, but it is not clear whether this is because of the qualification or because the wages are not attracting qualified people to work as teachers in Basic Skills
3. Basic Skills have improved productivity, especially within the semi-skilled workforce. Skills for Life is about improving productivity, it is about equipping employees with the skills which help them to do their jobs, as well as supporting them in becoming active and enterprising members of their community. Skills development is about creating a 'can-do' attitude in the workplace, building an individual's confidence to spot opportunities and implement ideas and empowering them to make different life choices. Skills development is no longer an add-on but recognised as an increasingly integral



element of responsible business practice (O'Mahoney, M. and De Boer 2002).

*Weakness:*

1. Basic skills courses are running for some people after working hours, which is tiring for learners and may limit the benefits.
2. The classes' have different students from different work background; which improves their communication skills, however it does not reflect their different work experiences and learners did not share the same needs related to their field of work.

*Basic skills recommendation:*

1. The content of materials used in learning programmes needs to be matched more closely to learner's employment.
2. Employers need to provide appropriate teaching rooms wherever possible.
3. Providers need to ensure that learners understand their rights and responsibilities in learning and the structure and timescale of their learning programme. Learners should receive brief details of essential health and safety matters, such as fire exits, when learning sessions take place in an unfamiliar environment.
4. Some providers need initial financial support for suitable place and equipment for running session for learners.
5. Funding organisations should give more care and considerable funds for the small scale providers that set learning target for learners, these target should be: Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic, Tangible (SMART) and look to achieve it.

### **8.3.2 E-Learning (Learndirect)**

*Strengths:*

1. The Learndirect programme has around 900,000 courses on various topics which cover the majority of needs for people in the UK to gain knowledge. Moreover the team responsible for producing courses keep investigating new needs and they design new courses accordingly and adapt current courses to fit with emerging needs.



2. The Learndirect courses are available for learners at home, work, Learndirect centres and internet cafés.
3. Many courses are free and there is a helpline to help learners and where they can find the courses that cover their needs. There is special support for learners who do not speak English as a first language.

*Weaknesses:*

1. It seems that, because of the Learndirect programme target objectives of reducing unemployment in England and delivering learning courses, there are many tutors and facilitators in the Learndirect centres that do not have enough experience or qualifications to work as tutors and to support Learndirect learners. (e.g. some of them only hold a level 2 qualification) and one of Learndirect is the tutors should to be on the level or higher than the course level, for example there are some courses serve level 2 qualifications so tutors must to be level 2 qualification or above.
2. Although the courses are well designed and improve learners knowledge, they still do not meet the real needs for those the research targeted; those under level 2 and 3 NVQ qualifications. Therefore the learners on this level have no interest in these courses unless pushed by their employer, or to get benefits from the Learndirect centres.
3. Learndirect courses have assessment by computer. Some learners are nervous about getting involved in these courses because they believe that they will not be able to deal with the new technology, or because they believe they are too old to deal with new technology.

*Learndirect recommendations:*

1. The courses producers' team and providers need to work more closely together to identify and meet potential learners' needs, particularly if new trends of needs appear and relevant provision is sparse.
2. Generally in the Learndirect courses the courses for NVQ level qualification such under level 2 and 3 need more tutoring support, especially if the learners have basic skills problems and are illiterate in ICT.



### 8.3.3 Work-Based Learning

#### *Strengths:*

1. Learners in work based learning courses develop good employment and social skills.
2. The courses give skills and experiences in the personal and professional development. They give the learners confidence before starting a new job. It also helps learners to be able to use their newly acquired knowledge and skills in the work place to improve their prospects.
3. These courses help to raise the productivity through improving performance in investment, skills, innovation, enterprise and competition as well as the productivity of the public sector.
4. The Work-Based Learning courses reinforce the learners' skills or give new skills for the learner to increase employment.
5. Imbedding the culture of learning and career progression early with learners and learners become confidence and professional.
6. Work-Based Learning courses are good for the development of employment skills; there is a good induction process, very efficient planning and effective off the job training.

#### *Weaknesses:*

1. The course materials for some distance learning courses are too difficult for learners to read. Therefore most of the learners interviewed claimed they do not have enough time to read these materials.
2. It seems the distance learning courses for work-based learning do not offer enough support learners and certainly not as much as the class based courses, although the course materials are more difficult than with other courses.
3. The practical part of the work based learning courses in colleges are not enough to give proper experience for the learners to start the job they want after they finished their course.
4. The delivery of monitoring and guidance for the training session by instructors or tutors is weak.



*Work-Based Learning recommendations:*

1. The course materials, especially in distance learning courses, need to be simplified because the materials are too difficult for the learners reading ability, especially if they have literacy problems.
2. The learners in distance learning courses need more supportive sessions because most learners do not properly understand the course materials.
3. There is insufficient sharing of good practice in health, social care and public service. Although there are very good quality assurance systems in some colleges, there is no standardisation of systems. Good practice that goes on, such as thorough lesson planning, fully involving learners in activities and making the most of resources, is not shared. Also there are not enough sessions on the practical side.

## **8.4 EVALUATION AND LEARNING SCHEMES**

Evaluation is the final formal phase of the Learning or training process; evaluation results can be available to those responsible for developing and carrying out learning or training program efforts in an attempt to facilitate improvement. When positive, they also can be used to justify the existence of the learning activity.

The final part of chapter 6 will discuss the evaluation of the learning process of learners in the three areas of learning, precisely what is to be evaluated, who should do the evaluation and when and why and how the evaluation done. The purpose of evaluation and assessment of the impact of the learning process is to determine whether trainees or learners actually learned new skills and attitudes as a result of the learning programme in practice, in the eyes of the trainee once the course has finished, in other words, was the training effective?

As the research shows, it seems that in these courses there is a lot of evaluation and measurement of the assessment. Evaluation starts from the first step until the end, as has been mentioned in chapter 6 (in each course process in each learning approach).



The evaluation process for each learning approach is conducted with learners, and it is a serious measurement carried out by the college that delivers the course and by the assessor who gives the qualification certificate. However the research shows there are no indicators measuring the impact or qualitative research on the learners after the course has finished, except the government quantitative research that indicate the statistics of the percentage of employees holding national qualifications.

### *Learning organisations*

The research targeted individuals adults learning and the ways and approaches of learning that provide by employers and local training providers organisations. Some of these organisations that research contact with are operated as a learning organisations. These organisations are having the environment of learning developed by different ways. The research shows that there are 2 organisations the Newcastle College and Gosforth private day nursery are acting as a learning organisations. The research shows that the Newcastle College has its own system for quality assurance and improving the performance within the college. The college holds regular meetings and workshops for all the staff members. The purposes of these workshop meetings are to self-evaluate the college performance, identify the needs for skills required to improve the performance, discuss the barriers facing the college vision, mission, and objectives. Comparing what has been mentioned above with Newcastle College and the indicators for the learning organisations mentioned by Longworth (1999) in chapter 1 it is clear that Newcastle College has the spirit of a learning organisation.

In the private day nursery, the research shows that the nursery has its annual plan for training and learning staff and managers, which is designed according to staff needs, the employees list their needs with their supervisor and manager, the manager sets a regular meeting with the staff to discuss their needs and sets a plan. The nursery has 18 members of staff and all staff members and managers attend the training together. The organisation has a mixture workforce of people who are very experiences and people new to the field; both exchange their experiences and share skills. They also share responsibility and management duties.



These two organisations the researcher contacted while conducting research in Tyne and Wear are closer to the definition of learning organisations, as provided by Cullen (1999), Longworth (1999) and Tjepkema and Scheerens (1998), as mentioned in chapter 1 in the literature review.

### *Cooperation between partners*

On the issue of cooperation between different departments and partners in the collaboration between Jobcentre Plus and the Learning and Skills Council a key recommendation of the National Employment Panel report, Welfare to Workforce Development, was that Learning and Skills Councils and Jobcentre Plus should agree joint local delivery plans in order to support key employment and skills priorities. This approach is now well established across the country and includes collaboration with other partners such as Business Link, information and advice networks, colleges, local authorities and the business community. Examples of how these joint delivery plans are being implemented include:

- Jobcentre Plus promoting Apprenticeship opportunities;
- Employer Training Pilots improving access to learning during employment and targeting support to under-represented groups; and
- The availability of LSC funding to allow jobless adults to continue their learning when they move into work.

The research recommended further cooperation between the strategic organisations and implementing organisations for more interaction and more coherence towards a learning society and learning environment. Also, it has to be an more research project implementing in NorthEast to measure the impact of learning programmes on the learners life and work, and to highlight the successful cases studies as good examples for learning and to encourage more people to join learning activities.

## **8.5 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has given an account of the barriers and motivation for learning as a result of interviewing the learners in the Tyne and Wear area in North East of England. Followed on from that was evaluations of the learning approaches. It has given the conclusion, strengths, weakness and recommendations for each learning



approach. and finally it has presented an evaluation of the three learning approaches. The next part of the study will present the situation in Egypt and will examine the economic reform, comparing the situation in England with the situation in Egypt from different aspects with respect of the big differences of the two countries.

The most learning lessons gained from the first part of the research in North East England are 3 main themes findings are: first improvement of qualifications and training for the vocational teachers. Second: the advantages for flexible provision created by work-based learning approaches. Third: the potential of e-learning to help de-centralise national education systems.



# CHAPTER 9

## RECOMMENDED IDEAS FOR EGYPT

### DRAWN FROM THE RESEARCH IN ENGLAND

This chapter draws on the research results presented in the first part of the study, where research was conducted in the North East of England to examine selected learning approaches implemented in Tyne and Wear to improve the skills and qualifications of the workforce to promote their capacity. This chapter will present a profile of Egypt, examine the education system in Egypt, outline the economic profile and reform for Egypt and the main sectors issues and government strategy. A comparison of the three approaches examined in England with the situation in Egypt will also be undertaken in this chapter. Finally recommendations will be presented, drawn from the best practices and lessons learnt from the research on the learning approaches in the North East of England. These recommendations will be for improving workforce skills and vocational training in Egypt.

#### 9.1 EGYPTIAN PROFILE

Egypt forms part of the North Africa region. It is situated north of Sudan lying between Libya and the Gaza Strip. It borders the Mediterranean Sea. Egypt controls the Suez Canal as well as the Sinai Peninsula. Cairo is the capital city and other important cities are Al Fayyum and Asyut. Port Said and Alexandria are important ports.

Although Egypt is a democracy, government is highly centralised with the president having extensive executive powers. President Mubarak has been in power since 1981.





## **9.2 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN EGYPT**

### **9.2.1 Economic Profile**

Egypt has the largest population and, after Saudi Arabia, is the second largest economy in the Arab world. The country's GDP totalled US\$89.8 billion in 2002 and in 2001 worth US\$509.9 million (Economic Overview 2005).

The economy is dominated by services, which including public administration account for about one-half of GDP. Tourism and the Suez Canal are important service sectors, although tourism has not fulfilled its potential in recent years, but nevertheless it has shown considerable resilience, having recovered strongly after both the September 11th 2001 suicide attacks in the US and the war in Iraq in 2003. The Suez Canal has suffered as a result of the substantial decline in oil traffic, but has performed strongly in 2003, benefiting from the upturn in traffic as naval vessels, mostly from the US, made their way to the Gulf.

Agriculture's contribution to GDP is gradually diminishing, but it is still an important activity. Even though only 3% of the total land area is arable land, agriculture accounted for 16.4% of GDP in fiscal year 2002/03 (July 1st-June 30th) and 28% of total employment in 2000/01, according to the latest Ministry of Planning figures. Manufacturing industries are also important, accounting for 19.7% of GDP in 2002/03, and are heavily concentrated in Cairo and the Nile Delta, while industry and mining accounted for nearly 14% of total employment in 2000/01. Petroleum and natural gas are also mainstays of the economy, accounting for 8% of GDP in 2002/03 and nearly 40% of merchandise exports, despite the gradual decline in crude oil production. There is a large informal sector, which the Minister of Finance has put at some 30% of total economic activity (Sources: Egypt Government 2003).

The country is classified as a middle-income economy and continues to record economic growth although there is increased pressure by international donors to implement reforms. These include the lifting of price controls, the reduction of subsidies as well as the relaxation of restrictions on trade and investment. The



government has instituted a privatisation programme and has committed itself to the implementation of reforms requested by donors (ibid).

### **9.2.2 Egyptian Economic Reform Strategy**

In the early nineties the government launched an ambitious economic reform and structural adjustment programme for economic situation. Economic reforms focused on stabilising the economy, improving public finances, new exchange rate policies, controlling inflation and monetary policies, decentralising the economy encouraging and fostering foreign direct investment and ensuring the aggressive participation of the private sector.

The Egyptian Pound benefited from an almost ten year peg at approximately EGP 3.4 to the U.S. Dollar, but faced with the instability of the global market and the impact of September 11th, the government floated the Egyptian Pound to reflect a more realistic rate based on market forces. Although the new free market mechanism has led to more devaluation of the currency, experts anticipate that the move will assist in attracting new foreign investment and boost the performance of the economy by driving export led growth.

Egyptian economic reform objectives in summary from two sources, AlMashat and Grigorian (1998) and Economic Overview (2005) as follows:

Improving the trade balance through maximising Egyptian exports. The government is giving high priority to improving the trade deficit by increasing export capacity. This led the government to improve and enhance the country's industrial capacity, encourage small and medium size enterprises, introduce new regulations and laws to facilitate export promotion, apply quality control and ISO standards, upgrade and enhance skills and adopt new technologies (AlMashat and Grigorian 1998).

Job Creation. Customarily workers have relied on the government as a source of employment, but the Prime Minister has said the onus for creating jobs was now on the private sector since the State no longer has resources to create sufficient new government jobs for new entrants to the jobs market (ibid).



Attract Foreign Direct Investment. Egypt is seeking foreign direct investment to drive job creation. As an emerging market the government is committed to creating an environment capable of attracting foreign investments and channelling capital into its various economic sectors. Since opening the door to foreign investments, Egypt has succeeded in attracting some US\$ 6 billion in new investment in industrial activities, free zone facilities, finance and tourism (Economic Overview 2005).

Privatisation as part of its ambitious economic reforms. The government has altered its regulatory framework to allow for the sale of 314- state-owned companies. Interests in over 180 companies have been sold. Privatisation methods include Initial Public Offerings (IPO), anchor investors, employee shareholder associations as well as liquidation and management agreement contracts, which will require a highly skilled workforce (Economic Overview 2005).

### **9.2.3 Future Economic Possibilities**

Growing interest in technology transfer and joint ventures by these private interests reflects the degree of economic progress and reinforces the alternatives anticipated after the reduction of Egypt's long- standing dependency on foreign aid in underwriting development. Aid will remain a factor, but is reduced in importance. International economic instability may work to Egypt's advantage in the longer term: it will give the government time to put economic reforms in place, which will help attract massive international investment. Egypt's foreign reserves are within the acceptable limits of GDP. The government has also worked to reduce its budget deficit: the deficit for example in 2001/2002 it was 30% lower than in 1999/2000 (Srinivasan 2005).

## **9.3 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT**

Egypt was rated 120th on the Human Development Index in 2003 and faces challenges of water scarcity and high instances of unemployment and poverty. The economic reforms of the 1990s also saw the creation of the Egyptian Social Fund for Development to cover the social effects of structural reform. However there is widespread recognition in government that social reform has lagged badly behind economic reform. Indeed the economic reform itself has led to increased social



stress, notably through a widening of income differentials and increased structural unemployment.

The co-existence of increasing wealth and extreme poverty in Egypt is endemic and only pro-active and focused government policies can break the vicious circle linking poverty to poor housing, health, education, and employment. With a per capita GDP of over US\$ 1400 Egypt is now technically a lower-middle income country and life expectancy, fertility, and infant mortality indicators have improved considerably over the last decade (Fahmy 1999). However, infant and maternal mortality rates compare unfavourably with countries at similar income levels and illiteracy rates (33% for men and 57% for women) are still very high. Statistics on poverty and deprivation are poor and likely to remain so until the results of a new poverty assessment survey by the World Bank (WB) are available but studies by the Institute of National Planning estimated the poor and the ultra poor, as a percentage of the population as being 23% and 7% respectively in 1995/6 (World Bank Statistic 2003). It is known that income differentials have significantly widened in recent years and that poverty is markedly worse in Upper Egypt where up to 60% of the population are poor, and in female-headed households (15-20% of the total) (world bank 2005).

In Egypt the unemployment rate varies from 7.4% (official) to 17% (unofficial) but the best estimate is around 8% with extensive additional under-employment, especially in the public sector which has been traditionally used to absorb unemployed graduates Egypt has an impressive record on job creation but cannot easily cope with the demographically created surge on the labour market ( El-Mahdi 2003). The position of women is especially difficult because of low literacy and poor skills. Egypt has basic social security coverage but there are real problems at the social margin (Fahmy 1999).

Access to basic education and basic health is a government priority but both the health and education systems are under-funded and inefficient and poor basic education is an important factor in explaining high illiteracy rates. The problems of managing the system are compounded by very poor statistics but those that exist suggest that the basic education reforms have still to make a significant impact on achievement levels although access has improved. Access to clean water and



sanitation is also a critical issue for poor Egyptians, and notably in the poor rural areas of Upper Egypt (El Mahdi, A. 2003).

The other side of the coin has been the rapid rise in the size and wealth of the Egyptian middle class. They are an important force for both economic and social change and can be expected to become increasingly influential as the Nasserite generation leaves the political scene.

Egypt is already launched on a major reform of the primary health care system and of basic education. The National Conference on Social Development (September 2000) and the proposed national social development strategy in its final report have put social development firmly back on the policy agenda. However, the Government of Egypt has still to translate this political concern into a fully worked out social development strategy that will tackle issues of poverty and social reform in a more integrated and coherent way. In education the revival of the Supreme Council for Human Resource Development could lead to the reform of the secondary and post secondary vocational technical education system given sufficient funding and political will. This will complement the existing programme (with donors) to reform basic education; and proposed programmes to upgrade post secondary TEVT (Fahmy and Galal 1999).

There are important poverty reduction programmes in place to reduce population growth and to resettle population from crowded cities (notably Cairo) into newly developed regions, notably Sinai and the Toshka Valley. The government has also indicated that it will pay increased attention to the issue of economically and socially vulnerable groups (notably women and the unemployed) and to those regions, notably in Upper Egypt, where high levels of poverty and illiteracy persist (El-Amrani 2004).

The government is concerned to engage NGOs in social development sector although their present ability to do so is undermined by a lack of capacity and of a proper legal framework that allows them to work closely also with donors. The Government has also made clear its wish to involve the donor community more closely in social development programming. Education and health reform already benefit from



considerable donor assistance and the government is now positioning the Social Fund for Development as the most effective instrument to articulate donor assistance and civil society delivery mechanisms (Civil Society yearbook 1996).

## **9.4 LABOUR MARKET SKILLS ISSUES IN EGYPT**

### **9.4.1 Availability and quality of labour as a limiting factor**

The policy debates about growth identified a skilled labour force as critical to economic liberalisation. As been mentioned by El-Amrani (2004) between 1994 and 2000 three surveys of enterprises (World Bank, ECES, Economic Research Forum) assessed perceived constraints to economic development in Egypt. All four pinpointed the availability and quality of labour as a limiting factor, and between 1994 and 2000 this problem was seen as becoming worse. The surveys found the following:

- i) A scarcity of semi-skilled and skilled labour. In larger firms, demand is increasingly for specialised or “higher” skilled, i.e. technologically-oriented, labour. The availability of skilled labour appears to have decreased since the first survey. Unskilled and low-skilled labour is abundant and does not appear as a constraint. Middle and high level management has become more abundant, but may still be in demand in some sectors for specific functions (e.g. sales) (El-Amrani 2004).
- ii) The quality of all trained labour, especially for highly skilled occupations and middle high level management positions, appears to be low and not adapted to the needs of firms. Quality appears to have significantly declined in recent years.
- iii) The quality of the education and TVET (Technical Vocational Education and Training) system was viewed as requiring upgrading.
- iv) The perceived need for in-service training and retraining to adapt and upgrade the quality and relevance of skills is increasing, but from a very low base. Demand is primarily for private training providers.

### **9.4.2 Small and medium enterprises and large public companies in traditional sectors are not competitive on labour productivity**

Egypt joined the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1995. In 2001 it initialled an Association Agreement with the European Union (EU), which has been ratified by



the Egyptian Parliament and is in the process of ratification by the EU Parliament. Both of these steps have put pressure on Egypt to increase its labour productivity. The agreements require that tariffs be reduced or eliminated and non-tariff barriers to trade such as customs procedures simplified by 2012 (El-Milkawy and Handoussa 2002). A few large Egyptian firms have a generally well-defined competitive advantage in international markets (ibid). However, small and medium enterprises and large public companies in traditional sectors are operating in “protected” domestic markets behind still high levels of protection and low labour costs. They are not competitive on labour productivity (Fahmy and Galal 1999). Average gross production per workers pointed out by El Amrani is over 1.5 times higher in Morocco, 2.4 times higher in Tunisia, and 4.1 times higher in Turkey. Average value added per worker is 1.6 times higher in Morocco, 2.5 times higher in Tunisia, and 5.7 times higher in Turkey. East Asian and Latin American countries show even better results. Again the need for a skilled labour force emerges as an important piece of the equation (El Amrani, 2004).

#### **9.4.3 Egypt’s technical and vocational education and training (TVET) system seems to contribute to its unemployment rates, especially to the rates for youth:**

Egypt has been dogged by high rates of youth unemployment. According to the 1996 census, the structure of unemployment by age is as follows: 15- 19 years: 26 percent; 20-24 years: 40 percent; and 25-29 years: 21 percent. The rates for females are higher: 15-24 years: 59 percent; and 25-29 years: 35 percent. Ninety-six percent of all unemployed between 15-29 are first time job seekers (El-Milkawy and Handoussa 2002). Estimates of overall open unemployment vary between 10-13 percent, and there is also substantial underemployment (ibid). As economic liberalisation proceeds, labour redundancies in state-owned enterprises are increasing. Although vibrant economic growth is the most powerful means of stimulating job creation by the private sector, Egypt’s Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) system seems to contribute to these unemployment rates, especially to the rates for youth, because it does not provide students with skills that employees find relevant (e.g. some students graduate from the industrial technical school without acquiring enough skills to work in industrial factories. Instead, they need more training before starting their job. In addition to this, some students graduated from the technical school with poor basic skills (Economic Overview 2005).



#### **9.4.4 Education and Employment**

One of the major problems facing many generations in Egypt is the lack of qualifications and experiences in addition to few job opportunities, which hinders the ability of youth to be involved in the business sector leading to scarcity of qualified labour. Although education plays a crucial role in enhancing and reinforcing quality and skills of youth it is facing many problems as a system, which increases the gap of the workforce lack of skills. In addition, Public Schools and institutes (colleges), which are supposed to source the local labour market with most of the workforce capacity in Egypt have long faced many problems. Overcrowded, run down classrooms, de-motivated, low-paid teachers under equipped teaching facilities and lack of space for playgrounds are but a few of those problems. As a result, public school students are deprived of an efficient learning environment and their school experience is negative and frustrating rather than positive and educational. Due to lack of capabilities or resources, the teaching methodologies adopted lack creativity therefore students learn very little and are seldom exposed to anything new or interesting. At a time when primary school students should be allowed maximum mental stimulation and growth, they are instead having those very capabilities repressed with minimum, if any stimulation and growth opportunities at all.

Furthermore lack of experiences in the labour market, make the chance of jobs in the private sector very low. Additionally there is no career progression orientated towards students in school going to university according to their grades, which, do not reflect their interest, therefore students graduate with not enough qualifications and knowledge to help them to build their careers.

The only provider for training and learning in Egypt are the academic providers: institutes and schools. Certification by other providers of training is not recognised by government or employers.



#### **9.4.5 Status of the Skills Training Sector**

In summary, the publicly-funded skills training system in Egypt has these characteristics as mentioned by Centre for Development Services (CDS 2002):

- It is highly fragmented bureaucratically.
- It is supply-driven, not demand-driven public funding flows to delivery institutions with little involvement of the private sector in the governance, funding, or delivery of training. The result is that training is not market relevant, is low quality, and is inefficient.
- The gap between the skills that training graduates actually obtain and those indicated by the credentials they receive distorts signals to employers.
- The system's efficiency and market relevance are unmonitored.

### **9.5 EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM AND REFORM IN EGYPT**

Egypt and its political leadership have obviously placed education on the top of the country's priorities during the decade of the nineties. This was embodied in considering education as Egypt's giant national project, which aimed at reforming education drastically and comprehensively during the nineties.

The education policy in Egypt has witnessed several developments covering all its goals, aspects, and dimensions during the last few years. Hence, the Egyptian education policy has become a continuous, concurrent, and adaptive policy that follows the scientific ways of planning, implementing, and evaluating the education reform projects. Moreover, it follows the legal channels and democratic methods in every stage. It genuinely, attempts to satisfy and meet the real needs of the Egyptian people (Essam El-Din 2003).

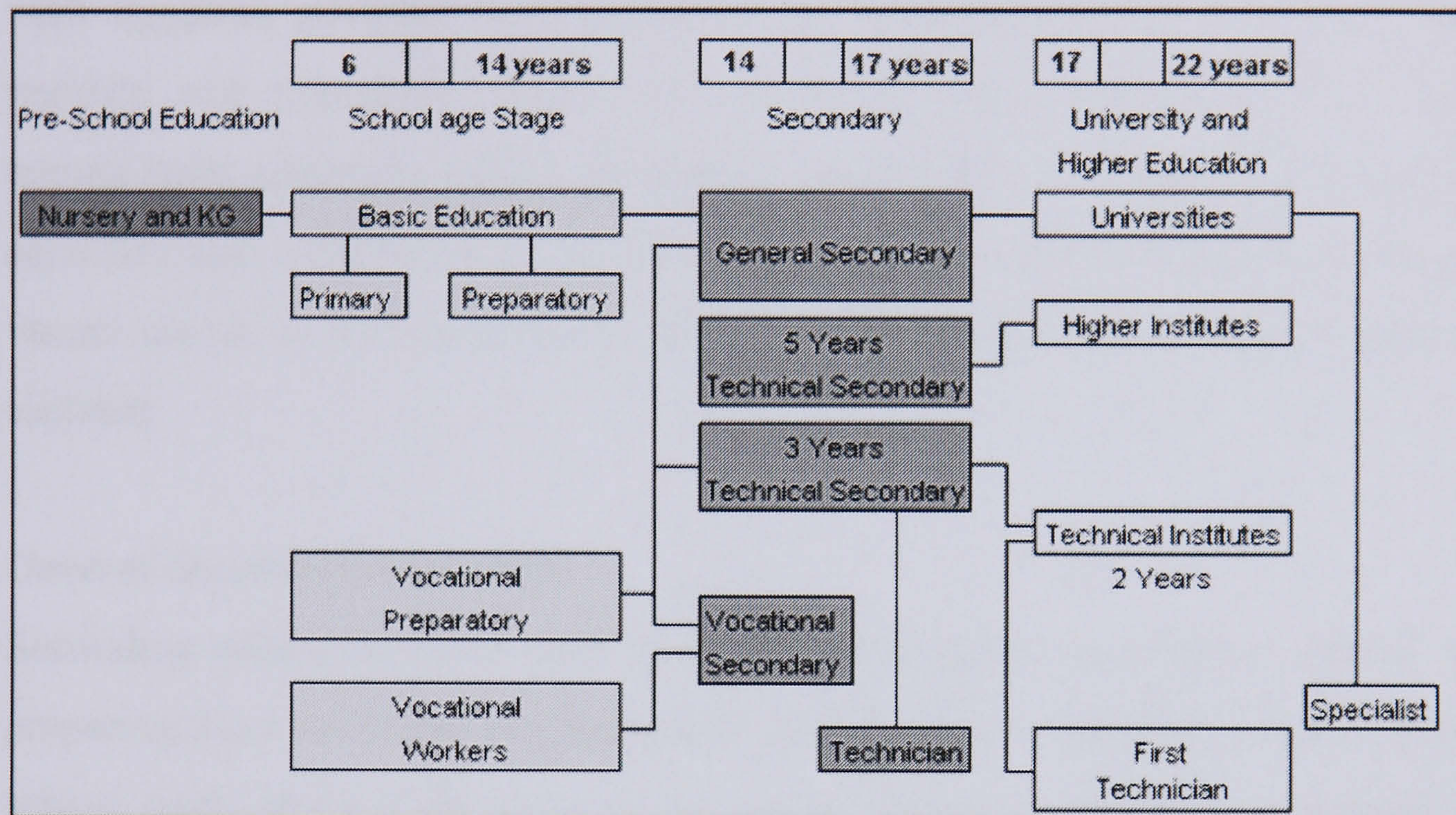
However, although there are many articles to the Egyptian constitution still on the practical side in the Education system there is a shortage in the curriculum and in the teaching skills and quality, which will produce graduated un-skilled people.



### 9.5.1 Organisation, Structure, and Management of the Educational System:

The education system in Egypt is the only systematic learning and training framework for people in Egypt and it is divided into many levels, as the diagram shows below and that subsequent explanation demonstrates.

**Fig 10: The Education System in Egypt**



Source: National report presented to the 45th session of the International Conference on Education, Geneva, 30 September - 5 October 1996.

### 9.5.2 General Structure of Education:

In virtue of law No. 23 in 1999, which modified some of the items and articles of law 139 in 1981, the duration of pre-university education is 12 years starting from the age of six till the age of 18 years old. This pre-university education includes:

- Nine years dedicated to compulsory education, which consists of two cycles (the primary cycle taking six years and preparatory cycle taking three years).

Either

- Three years of secondary education (whether general or vocational)

or

- Five years for advanced technical secondary education.

This education sequence is preceded by the kindergarten stage, which is an independent education stage taking two years starting from the age of four till the age



of six. This stage aims at achieving a comprehensive development for pre-school children and preparing them to join basic education stage.

*Basic Education:*

Basic education is a right for Egyptian children aged six. The state is committed to providing those children with basic education and parents are legally obliged to send their children to schools to receive their basic education when their children become six years old. This basic education takes the duration of nine years. Governors in each Egyptian governorate are responsible for assuming the necessary decrees to regulate and implement compulsory education and distribute children aged six among basic education schools within the governorate. It is allowed to give children aged five and a half years the chance to join primary schools where there are enough vacant places in schools provided that the class density agreed upon should not be violated.

*General Secondary Education:*

Secondary education stage aims at preparing students for practical life as well as preparing them for higher and university education. In virtue of decree No. 2 in 1994, school study at the first grade of secondary education has become general for all students. Meanwhile, students receive their general secondary education completion certificate after passing exams according to two scholastic years. The first scholastic year exam is held at the end of the second grade whereas the second scholastic year exam is held at the end of the third grade of secondary school.

In virtue of the ministerial decree regarding the study plan and testing regulations, school subjects of second and third grades are divided into three groups. The first group consists of main required subjects that all students should study. The second group encompasses optional subjects, which qualify students to join specific groups of university colleges and higher institutes. Meanwhile, the third group includes the optional advanced level subjects. These students graduate aged 18 but their qualifications do not allow them for work, that because those students have Basic skills problems, confidence problems and lack of practical experiences.



### *Vocational Technical Secondary Education: (Industrial Agricultural, and Commercial):*

Study at technical secondary education is implemented according to two levels. The first level is that of preparing a group of technicians at technical secondary schools (three-year-system). The second level is that of preparing group of senior technicians at technical secondary schools (five-year-system). A general examination is held at the end of the two school terms each year for grade three. Students who pass that examination receive the technical schools diploma (three-year-system) and the students' major in this diploma is specified in the certificate they receive. Another general examination is, also, held for the fifth grade students and when they pass this exam they are granted the technical schools diploma (five-year-system) and their majors are specified in the certificates they receive. The students graduate on the three-year-system at age 18 years old, and on the five-years system age 20 years old. For both of them their certificate allows them to work as qualified employees.

### *University and Higher Education:*

This type of education is implemented in universities or higher specialized institutes. Student who receive their general secondary education completion certificate and the other students who graduated from technical secondary education can join university colleges or higher institutes. The duration of study at this education extends from two years in middle technical institutes to four, five, or six years in university colleges and higher institutes.

### **9.5.3 Objectives of Educational Reforms**

As been mentioned by Megahed (2002), since the early 1990s the education policy in Egypt has aimed at achieving the following general objectives :

Firstly, providing educational opportunities for all Egyptian citizens without any type of discrimination or exception through the expansion of the education coverage so that it includes other cultural and mass media institutions rather than being confined to schools alone. Following thus the continuous and life long learning objective, which is education, should lead to excellence, and this should be available for all Egyptian citizens. Thus, balanced education that is based on accepted criteria of both



quantity and quality is achieved. Hence, education guarantees a higher universal level of experiences that pupils should go through (Megahed 2002).

Secondly, through developing curricula and constructing non-traditional curricula to face the contemporary changes and future challenges and enable learners to search for information. The curricula also should clearly be related to the real needs of society, the economy and the needs of individuals to require esteem and life skills. They should be related to the technological advances and take into consideration pupils' right to choose the knowledge they need to learn without any kind of dogma or intellectual bias.

Thirdly, care needs to be taken in preparing and training teachers in a way that guarantees that they get varied educational, professional, and cultural experiences, that talented and gifted students are discovered and , providing enough care for special needs of students and investing their potentialities.

Fourthly, deepening the democratic participation framework inside the educational institutions and schools in addition to providing enough opportunities for effective participation on the part of all intellectuals of the society in education decision making process and generalising the use of multi-media in education, training on the use of computers and in training aiming at helping learners acquire new skills in that field so that developed technology can be generalised in Egypt and new generations can understand and master it.

Fifthly, preparing qualifying students to deal with the mechanics of the age, interact with the conditions and circumstances and make use of every new invention. In the meantime learners/students should be protected against the cultural invasion in a way that guarantees preserving the national identity, values, and the Egyptian ethical and historical roots.

#### **9.5.4 Objectives of reform in Vocational Technical Education**

There is no doubt the need for quality technicians and a skilled workforce is crucial to sustainable industrial development, and a key determinant of a country's international competitiveness in a rapidly globalizing world economy. The



competitive advantages of a country and its potential for modernization are directly related to the size of accumulated human capital. People, with their education, skills and experience, determine the opportunities of economic growth. These are the objectives of vocational Technical Education in Egypt presented by Fatma El-Hamidi (2005).

- Preparing a group of technicians in various fields of industry, agriculture, and management and commerce.
- Developing students' artistic talents and potentialities.
- Preparing senior technicians and trainers in the fields of industry, agriculture, management, services, and commerce by train them cooperated with international donors.

#### **9.5.5 Examples of Educational Reform Projects in Egypt**

Nowadays, Egypt regards education reform as a core of economic reform, and there are many cooperative projects funded by international donors to support the strategy of education form such as in literacy, secondary school and university funding.

One of the most recent projects is that led by Northumbria University, Newcastle University, human resources consultants Hay Group and the Ain Shams University in Cairo, which will lead the way in reforming education in Egypt. As a result, 880 head teachers and education managers from Egypt will receive training in Egypt and another 660 in the North East, reinforcing the international reputation of the two universities and Hay Group in the field of educational leadership. The programme budget reached to £9 millions, funded by the European Union, forms a central part of Egypt's Education Enhancement Programme which aims to create reformist managers capable of bringing about improvements to the quality of teaching and standards of education in Egypt. Head teachers and managers will focus on leadership and management development, information and communications technology, equity and diversity, study skills and the development of English language skills.

The Higher Education Enhancement Project is part of a comprehensive strategy for education reform in Egypt and is one of 25 reform projects, 11 of which will receive



World Bank funding. The reform agenda was influenced by the National Conference on Higher Education, held in February 2000, and aims to redress Egypt's need to upgrade educational quality in the university sector. This project will be funded by \$50 million. The project will focus on three central areas: (i) improving the efficiency through the reform of governance and management of the higher education system; (ii) improving the quality and relevance of university education to respond to the needs for new learning technologies, equipment, and human resource development; and (iii) improving the quality and relevance of mid-level technical education.

## **9.6 LESSONS FOR EGYPT FROM THE NORTH EAST CASE STUDY**

The possibility of applying lessons learned in the study of North-East England to meeting learning needs in Egypt will be examined in two parts, first, by comparing the situation in North-East England and Egypt. Second, by developing ideas for projects which could be applied in Egypt based on the research from North-East England

### **9.6.1 Comparison of problems between England and Egypt**

40% of the workforce population have problems with Basic Skills in Tyne and Wear, compared to around 45% in Egypt having literacy problems.

People with low qualification and skills have no incentive to improve their qualification or skills whilst they are employed, if their job is threaten or if they are required to improve their skills by their employers by taking training courses based on employers' recommendations. For example, in England the reasons why many people work toward levels 2 and 3 NVQ in the Social Care and Early Years sectors are based on the government policy that the minimum requirement for employment is a level 2 or 3 qualification<sup>6</sup>, so employers in England encourage their staff to gain the minimum required qualification for employment. In Egypt, because of the policy, the minimum for employment is the literacy certificate which is equal to Basic Skills in the UK so most employees not holding a qualification must work to gain this certificate to keep their job or to apply for unskilled jobs.

---

<sup>6</sup>This requirement is limited to the Social Care and Early Years sectors



Lack of job searching skills for those below the qualification level, in other words, people are not searching for jobs in the normal ways (newspaper, job web, job centres, etc), they depend on “word of mouth”, this is because of a lack of confidence to apply for the advertised job, lack of skills of presenting themselves, problems of filling applications. So, for example in England people below level 2 NVQ have lack of confidence in applying for an advertised job instead they depend on relatives or a friend guiding them and hope that the employer might take them without filling in an application form and an official interview. In Egypt the same situation occurs, people depend on “word of mouth” or nepotism to find a job, the most common method is nepotism.

A high percentage of the workforce have graduated from vocational school or colleges to be employed, but they are not ready because they are not skilful enough to fit the job requirements, for example, a high percent of the workforce in Egypt graduated without any skills, even sometimes from university. In England the government have realised that problem and run apprenticeship and other training programmes to overcome this problem.

### **9.6.2 Comparison in reference to the three learning programmes**

*Work-Based Learning:* Comparing the situation in Egypt with work-based learning programmes in England there is no similarity in Egypt with the work-based learning programmes described in the chapters on North-East England. The situation in Egypt is that if any employees in the public or private sector would like to improve their qualification, the employees have to spend their own money and take their own time to find the training which covers their needs (which is very expensive). However there are some employers offering training courses based on what they think the work needs are, not based on personal development plan agreements between employer and employee. Most employees in the public sector in Egypt considered training courses as fun, an escape from work duties. This belief permeates through the bottom level of employment and the high level of middle management. Most higher management do not attend any training courses.



*Basic Skills:* The Egyptian government launched the national campaign against illiteracy in 1990, establishing the General Authority for Literacy and Adult Education (GALAE) in 1992. The project aimed to reduce illiteracy rates, particularly amongst women, and alleviate poverty. In Egypt, most learners in literacy programme are women; they learn to read through World Education's integrated literacy initiative. Funded by the Ford Foundation, World Education in collaboration with Egypt's national adult literacy network, the General Authority for Literacy and Adult Education (GALAE) to combine health information and literacy materials. The project was so successful that today, prenatal care, childbirth, postpartum care, breastfeeding, and health care for infants are covered in the nation's core literacy curriculum. The literacy rate in Egypt is 51.4 per cent (Males: 64.6 per cent, Females 38.8 per cent) (2003 est. of total population 66,050,004) (UNDP 2000 Annual Report about Egypt).

The curriculum and teacher-training program were developed, tested, and implemented in cities throughout Egypt, with over 10,000 learners—mostly women and adolescent girls—and 500 teachers. The Social Research Centre of the American University in Cairo designed and conducted a research study to document the impact of the program on the health knowledge and attitudes of literacy teachers, students, and associated households, also the (Adult Literacy Training Programme) ALTP that funded by (Department For international Development in UK) DFID, and piloting training project for literacy teachers training and GALAE staff.

Teachers and learners also found the materials and content to be appropriate and useful in literacy courses, as well as a successful way of communicating important information about life, health, children and work.

Comparing the Basic Skills strategy in UK with Egypt with respect to the huge difference between them, in Egypt there is big campaign that was formed by Mrs. Mubarak (wife of Egypt's President Mubarak) in 1994 to tackled the illiteracy problem. The authority responsible for implementing the campaign strategy is the General Authority for Literacy and Adult Education (GALAE). This campaign targeted people who have no qualifications to join free literacy classes in their area, or to get peer to peer support from teachers trained by GALAE staff. However,



although the government announced that the percentage is declining, the quality is very bad because the programme is targeting unemployment and literacy and most of the teachers do not have enough experience to deal with adult education. In addition, there is high corruption in the authorities although there were many projects spending lots of UK pounds and US dollars to prepare the staff in GALAE to be able to plan and implement. So, in sequences the achievement of GALAE does not provide any improvement to the literacy rate in Egypt.

*E-Learning:* comparing the situation with Egypt for e-learning, there is no similarity with the situation in England. In Egypt there is no e-learning program. There are programmes related to IT skills such as European Security Driving License (ESDL) courses, these IT skills courses target university graduates who have completed their studies within the latest three calendar years. There are around 40 centres throughout Egypt in major cities. These courses are partly funded by government and the learner has to share some costs. Recently Egypt has privatised Egypt Telecom which will lead to more IT skills required for the company, which will encourage many academic institutes to work as official and academic training providers and government to work hard to offer e-learning for the workforce in Egypt. However the only program is related to IT skills. The Ministry of Communications and Information Technology (MCIT) has worked hard to upgrade Egypt's telecommunications and IT infrastructure since 1999 to position Egypt as a regional telecommunications and information technology (IT) hub. A key requirement is the training of a cadre of IT and communications specialists, who will help upgrade Egypt's ICT infrastructure. Therefore, MCIT has implemented an intensive human resource development initiative known as "The Professional Training Program."

The program is a grant from MCIT and available for all Egyptian University graduates fulfilling the program criteria, and it is divided into two sections: Information Technology and Communication & Networking. MCIT has set a target in the autumn of 2000 to achieve in its 5 years plan training program, which is to train 20,000 to 25,000 IT professionals, and 4,000 to 5,000 communications and networking specialists (i.e. Annually performing training of around 5,000 IT professionals and 1,000 communications and networking technicians). To materialise this initiative, MCIT started to create partnerships with multinational IT companies



and launched a series of tenders. There are currently eleven multinational companies involved in the professional training program: IT Training: IBM, ICL, Orascom and Arab Academy for Science & Technology, Communication and Internet Training: Cisco, Nortel, Ericsson, Lucent, Siemens, Huawei, and AlcaTel.

Another e-learning programme, called Open University, targeted Cairo University students, The project is piloted the idea and operated for 3 years from September 2003 to 2006. The project mission is “strengthening of the Open University E-Learning Centre at Cairo University” and its vision is to allow Cairo University to:

- become autonomous in producing web-based e-learning courses.
- fully evolve into a true international university.
- encourage and promote on-line courses among different faculties.

Nevertheless, in general e-learning is very limited in Egypt and not like England’s big programme.

## **9.7 IDEAS DRAWN FROM THE BEST PRACTICE AND LEARNING LESSONS FROM CASE STUDIES IN THE NORTH EAST OF ENGLAND**

This part of the chapter presents projects ideas for skills improvement and development to be implemented in Egypt, based on the best practice and lessons learnt presented in chapter 8, To recap these are firstly to improve the qualifications and training of the vocational teachers; secondly, to consider the advantages of flexible provision created by work-based learning approaches; and thirdly to reflect on the potential of e-learning to help de-centralise national education systems.

These lessons were derived from the research conducted in Tyne and Wear on workforce skills development. The key finding in the first part of research in England research focused on the three themes that have been discussed in the conclusion of chapter 7. These themes were (1) improvement of qualifications and training for vocational teachers; (2) the advantages for flexible provision created by work-based learning approaches ; and (3) the potential of e-learning to help de-centralise national education system:



## **1. Improvement of qualifications and training for vocational teachers**

### **Project Title: Promoting the Role of Teachers skills as Workforce**

#### *Project statement:*

This idea is drawn from the Sand Writing programme idea which was presented as a case of best practice in chapter 7, which aims to develop the workforce skills and help the community skills at the same time through the improvement of qualifications and training for the vocational teachers.

The idea in brief is to attempt to increase the potentials of the academic staff (Teachers) and institutes to play a greater role to improve the skills of the workforce in the community, to act as learning organisations and to help to build career progression for teachers and students. Academic staff and teachers should become more involved in community development; they have a great impact in disseminating cultural awareness, and creating a sense of responsibility and dedication among young people and students. This should be reflected in the project's strategic goal, objectives, target audience and main activities which could be expressed in the following way:

#### *Strategic Goal:*

The project's goal is to develop and enhance the role of teachers as learning leaders to enable them to interact more effectively in the community within the framework of its economic and social needs, in a manner that will help achieve sustainable development with the help and support of different sectors and to help young people to start thinking about their career at an early stage and throughout the course, helped by the teacher's directions.

#### *Project objectives:*

- Human resource development through developing the role of teachers as a learning leaders in the community
- Raising the students and other shareholders awareness in respect to the importance of development and career planning by teachers.

#### *Target groups:*

- Educators (Teachers)



- Learning leaders (retired teachers, headmasters and administrative staff)
- The community as a whole

Main activities:

The main activities are divided into four main parts:

First, the new role of teachers and learning leaders in the community needs to be determined, and the different aspects of support that can be offered by different shareholders should be identified. A campaign to increase the awareness of all partners involved in the project and needs to be designed. An institutional capacity-building programme for teachers and learning leaders and their organisations should be implemented.

Secondly, an assessment will be needed of the teachers and learning leaders needs (current needs, future needs, skills need to create learning organisations). In addition a community needs assessment should be undertaken, with participatory learning and action research. In addition, teachers need to be trained to be trainers. (TOT).

Thirdly, young people and students should be trained by teachers (TOT) on how to plan their career, how to select a profession, how to assess the community needs and make their choices accordingly, how to compromise between their own aspirations and wishes and the demands and requirements of the labour market. In addition, a sense of responsibility and loyalty needs to be created among young people and students towards their community to encourage them to participate in development activities in the community under their teachers' direction (giving the teachers the role of mentors). The awareness among young people and students of the importance of reading needs to be developed. Also, teachers and administrative staff should be trained to enhance their capacity to implement community development activities.

Fourth and finally, libraries and learning resources centre should be established in institutes available for the whole community. Preferably, these would be managed by young people and students under supervision from the teachers who had been trained to be trainers. Exhibitions/fairs of the different products of students (i.e. art work, handicrafts) and seminars and workshops can be organised with students and teacher



giving presentations on their different activities. This can also be a means of discovering new talents (i.e. poetry, painting, music, writing, etc.) directing them to the appropriate place, and providing guidance and advice on how to develop skills, talents and/or potentials and build confidence and presentation skills.

Projects such as this would help to promote the role of teachers and would train the teachers to increase their skills and qualifications to embed learning in the community rather than linking it only to academic study. This would help the teachers as the main educational workforce to improve their skills and to help improve the students skills in the early stages as well.

There are different roles for each partner in the project as follows:

*Government:* the government would be involved in all aspects/phases of the project from the very start. The Ministry of Education, along with education directors to which selected teachers are affiliated, would represent their institutes in the training. Selected institutes would utilise public and private and not-occupied lands (which is land not used for learning activity, such as sport areas) for different purposes/activities; training, workshops, lecturer, sports, gardens, open-air theatres, exhibitions/fair, and small markets.

*Employers:* this would be at a later stage when teachers working with young people demonstrate the new skills they have acquired, making presentations of their activities and the role of their institutes in community development, exhibit their products, express themselves in terms of their hopes and dreams and their expectations from their involvement in such activities. Investors, businesses, and the private sector as a whole need to see tangible results in order to take a step forward and contribute more effectively in achieving the objectives of this project. This contribution would be made through donating funds and/or equipment to institutes: computers, data show, overhead projectors etc. Funds could be used to renovate, build gymnasiums using attributed income, public play yards, public gardens (in collaboration with the government), help market, sell and promote products. In addition some teachers from these institutes could have some training with those investors (employers), which would help them to gain skills and become available to the employer part time or to train on the new skills they gained later as trainers.



*Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs):* CSOs and NGOs could play a significant role as well, they should be expected to provide teachers and other participants with expertise in the fields of program/project design and implementation. Development practitioners would provide technical assistance and educate teachers on the different aspects of community development work: presentations skills, empowerment and working with different sectors of the community, how to exhibit their skills, how to solicit funds, how to raise resources locally, how to disseminate the concept and importance of volunteerism in the community. They could assist in educating and training teachers on scientific thinking, career planning, designing and circulating brochures pertinent to the activities/ departments and/or authorities involved in the project, provide training materials, educate and train teachers and administrative staff in institutes on documenting their activities and help in the actual documentation process.

## **2. Flexible provision created by work-based learning**

### **Project Title: Workforce Skills Development**

#### *Project statement and components*

This project idea is drawn from best practice and lessons from the work based learning programmes in the North East of England and from the theme the advantages for flexible provision created by work-based learning approaches. However some adaptation in the ideas are needed to fit with the circumstances, labour market and system and environment in Egypt because of the big differences in the educational vocational system and government policy system in Egypt from England. This idea seems to improve the workforce skills and qualifications by developing learning and training programmes especially for employees and those looking for a job.

The Workforce Skills Development Project would assist the Egyptian Government in the implementation of a pilot project to stimulate the private sector demand for skills training development, through a demand-driven, and competitively-based on market research. Project components could be as follows:

- 1) The awareness program, and monitoring and evaluation component, would support the provision of technical advisory services to promote outreach



programmes; implement monitoring and evaluation surveys, studies, and assessments. It would enable beneficiary firms to undertake training needs assessments, and plan the national market research (as the research conducted in England on national level to identify the needs explained in chapter 6). This project would enable training providers and project intermediaries to develop training proposals. The project would initially target three sectors of the economy, for example manufacturing, construction, and tourism, and the small- and medium-sized private sector enterprises (SMEs), employer federations, business, and unions in these sectors.

2) The training sub-projects component would be a demand-driven training program on a cost-shared basis with beneficiary firms, and would strengthen the institutional capacity of the project. The program would be implemented for the benefit of small and medium size enterprises, and related business organisations, initially in the three sectors discussed in the previous section. Short term (less than six months) production-related training would be supported, particularly in areas of in-service training, and training for prospective employees.

3) Project management, and monitoring and evaluation (M & E) component would be essential, and technical advisory services to strengthen the institutional capacity of the Project Management Unit, and conduct the monitoring and evaluation of the project 's inputs, processes and outputs would be necessary.

#### *Project development objective:*

The objective of the project are to improve the workforce skills throughout the piloting project and to stimulate the private sector demand for skills training development through a demand-driven and competitively-based mechanism which needs the private sector needs.

#### *Benefits and target population:*

##### *Benefits*

*Economic benefits:* the project idea would initially be a pilot initially and should produce training that is more market relevant and that corrects skill imbalances faster, thus allowing beneficiary firms to improve their competitiveness. The tendering process for training provision should result in a more effective use of



public training funds as is the situation in work based programme in the North East of England.

*Social Benefits:* the project idea should help improve the employability and labour productivity of individuals by bridging the gap between their skills and qualification and those required by businesses and employers this is the same target as it is in work based learning programme in England (refer to chapters 7 and 8).

### *Target Populations*

There are three target groups.

*Employees.* Two groups of workers would be targeted by the project idea: i) those already employed in a firm, and ii) those for whom there is a demonstrated demand by firms through their federation or recruiting agencies. The benefits for each are those traditionally associated with market relevant training of good quality: better chances of getting a job, of keeping a job, of promotion, and of improved earnings.

*Employers and business associations.* The project would have initial eligibility criteria for firms and business associations: firm size (small and medium-sized), business sector (e.g. manufacturing and tourism), and geographic area (zones with large capacity of firms in the selected sectors and with business organisations with experience in managing training activities). In the long run eligible firms should benefit from improved labour productivity. In the shorter run both firms and business associations should benefit from the exercise of identifying their skill and training needs and of providing effective training services.

*Training providers.* In conjunction with the incentives such as those working in the same area or firm, competition for funds may encourage these providers to develop their capacity to supply the services demanded by employers. These organisations are academic course providers such as institutes and schools which follow the vocational education system in Egypt and which are certified to give an certificate allow the learners to apply for job and general training providers which are the kind of provider gives general training not certified and not give certificate.



Finally, the project is likely to have a good influence on the economic situation in Egypt, as the one implemented in Tyne and Wear, by increasing the GDP which will affect the economic growth in the Egyptian economy.

*The government departments and organisations involved in this project would be: Ministry of Planning and Local Development, Ministry of Manpower and Immigration, firm and employers and business associations.*

### **3. De-centralise of the national education system through e-learning**

#### **Project Title: E-Learning and Vocational Education**

The largest majority of unemployed secondary graduated are graduates of vocational secondary school (76%). The unemployment rate is lower among general secondary graduates because many enrol in higher education institutions upon graduation, after which, by tradition, they have been guaranteed public sector employment. Vocational students make up 70% of total secondary enrolments and fewer than 5% enter university.

At present many graduates from the education system do not have the skills and knowledge needed to thrive in the global market. One of these skills is related to IT, ICT skills, presentation, and interview skills. 60% of the country's unemployed hold secondary level qualification but employers report that applicants lack the necessary skills and knowledge that required such as computer skills and ICT skills. Modernising the education system and curriculum by entering the e-learning courses and computer skills will helps the students to graduated with skills they lack and with the skills that are required in the local labour market. Also it will reinforce them to start the self learning route and to be able to identify their needs and look to satisfy their needs.

#### *Project idea:*

The provision of active and interactive electronic education has impact on the improvement of other skills. The proposed project aims to allow the graduated students to reinforce the future workforce in the local market (students graduated from the vocational school and institutes) and, furthermore, teachers to become



qualified to be autonomous in producing web-based e-learning courses and to be fully involve into the career development of the students.

The project idea would be based upon powerful online activities that bring measurable results, includes self-learning, solving organizational and individual needs for development of the students to fit with the local labour market needs and teachers skills. The project idea was derived from the e-learning (Learndirect) case study in England as a best practices and learning lessons. This idea is based on the theme of the potential of e-learning to help de-centralise national education system. Some change have been made to adapt the idea of e-learning to fit with the system in Egypt.

The project idea is a pilot idea; would use some courses/subjects from the curriculum for the school and institutes' students to be e-learning courses in addition to other courses related to general skills linked to employment such as communication, job search skills, presentation skills, time management and any courses. Students would enrolled in theses courses by the institutes. They would be given a user name as password to allow them to enter the courses from any place, institute computers clusters, home, work, or other places that have internet connection as there are many internet providers throughout Egypt. The main objectives of these courses would be:

- Improving IT skills and computer skills for institute learners
- Improving other skills related to learners sectors field work
- Improving the skills of job searching, interviews and presentation skills
- Improving any other skills related to the need market.

Further objectives would be to assess skills needs and professional development for teachers as facilitators and teachers. The second component would strengthen institutional capacity through management and the development of educational quality assurance policies, technical assistance would support professional development for education providers (school and institutes)

The Project concepts include:

- A tool for self learning and innovation for both students and teachers



- E-resource for continual learning
- The students and teachers will b always be the core of the e-learning and education process.
- The stages of e-course availability.

The Project approach would:

- Build on existing assets (knowledge, equipment, courses)
- Develop/ create local competencies
- Include full Arabic production facilities
- Improve workforce skills.

Main focuses of e-course production would be

- Training teachers (via e-learning experience) so that they are able for prepare e-courses materials.
- Producing materials (contents, scenarios, logic links, editing, durability, innovations, quality assurance) that would be supported by IT implementation.
- Each e-learning course would have a tutor (from the teachers previously trained in the institute). The tutors would be responsible for facilitating the courses for learners by giving an induction session before the course started. This would include: course objective, the learning aims, how the course will help the learners to improve his/her skills. This would be recorded in the learners record form development plan. The courses should include audio and video, and examples to support explanation for the learners.

The project phases:

1. Analysis of the needs for students and labour market like market research.
2. Fully equipped e-learning production centres and classrooms
3. Skilled personal to run the e-learning centre located in the school and institutes
4. First set of pilot e-learning courses designed and ready for delivery
5. Structured feedback on how to improve the quality and contents of e-courses (quality assurance).



## **Conclusion**

This chapter was driven as a result of the research that has been conducted in the North-East of England, presented in chapters 2-8. This chapter presented the background in Egypt from the point of view of the education system, the economic profile and reform. It has also been shown what the Egyptian problems related to the workforce skills are, and the main interests of the Egyptian government. Lastly, the researcher has recommended some ideas based on the research conducted in the North East of England to implement in Egypt.



# CHAPTER 10

## CONCLUSIONS

This thesis was the result of a study comprised of two parts. The first part was as a research project conducted in Tyne and Wear in the North East of England, its resulting field-work has been presented from chapter 2 to chapter 8. It has given an account of the skills and qualifications of the workforce in Tyne and Wear in the North East of England. The situation in England nationally and regionally was examined in addition to the local research conducted in Tyne and Wear. The research outlined the different government bodies and local partners whom are responsible for delivering the government strategies to improve the skills and qualifications (Appendix 2 shows all partners). The research considered different approaches of learning to improve the skills and qualifications in Tyne and Wear as Basic Skills, Learndirect and Work-Based Learning. The research findings have been presented based on the research conducted locally in Tyne and Wear.

The second part was presented in chapter 9, based on desktop research about Egypt and presented project ideas drawn from the results which were presented in the first part.

### 10.1 ANSWERING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions have been presented in chapter 3. The research has answered these questions as follows:

*Question (1) what kind of learning needs and problems face adults in everyday life?*

The research shows that in Tyne and Wear there are different needs for adults, there are community needs like the basic skills and there are sectors and employer needs in each sector and in each field. In general there are other life needs such as social relationships, to improve conversation skills and to become more confident, able to help their children, able to deal with bills and forms, etc



*Questions (2) what are the obstacles and barriers facing learners and how can they be overcome?*

The research shows that negative experiences from the learners past educational experience is significant. A lack of confidence and a feeling that the course might be too difficult are the most common barriers for learners to participate in learning. The UK government has worked very hard to integrate new ways of teaching to overcome these barriers.

*Question (3) what are the resources for learning and learning approaches?*

The research examined three types of adult learning: Basic Skills, e-Learning (Learndirect) and Work-Based Learning. Each approach has its own way of improving the workforce skills, these ways such as off-job training, on-the-job training, distance learning, e-learning and classroom-based learning. The most favoured way of learning for adults the research shows is courses based on the classroom because of its way of interaction and communication between learners.

Referring to chapter 3's research methodology, and the second part of the research study about Egypt, the questions answer related to the second part of the study as follows:

*Question (1) how do Egyptian learning approaches compare to those examined in the North East?*

This question is related to the situation in Egypt has been answered in chapter 9, explaining there is a similarity between the situation and some circumstances in England and Egypt in people's attitudes and skills of the workforce and there is a difference in the field of learning. As England is one of the leading countries in the world, and it has good experience of learning strategies and programmes, the researcher chose English programmes of learning to study as best practices.

*Question (2) what are the workforce problems facing Egypt?*

This question is related to the problems facing the workforce in Egypt, chapter 9 answered this question as it presented the different problems facing the workforce as, shortage in jobs and in career development as well as shortages in the skills of the



workforce which, for vast numbers of them, is related to the lack of qualified learning and training programmes to equip them for the labour market.

*Question (3) What are the objectives of vocational education and economic reform in Egypt?*

This question is related to the objectives of vocational education in Egypt is presented in chapter 9, these objectives have targeted the vocational education colleges' graduates as adults and a workforce that supposed will supply the local labour market soon.

*Question (4) what initial recommendations can be made to overcome these problems?*

This question is referred to learning lessons and best practice that helped in initial recommendations for Egypt; the lessons learnt have been presented in chapter 8 which was drawn from the three learning approaches from the research in the North East of England. The three main finding themes as a result to the research field work in England directed the ideas recommended to implement in Egypt, theses themes are: Improvement of qualifications and training for vocational teachers; the advantages for flexible provision created by work-based learning approaches; and the potential of e-learning to help de-centralise national education systems in Egypt. The recommended ideas have been presented in chapter 9, which targeted the workforce, especially those who graduated from vocational education in Egypt.

## **10.2 SUMMARY FINDING IN THE RESEARCH STUDY**

The researcher has some hypotheses concerning the definition of the good practices, particularly the ones that have a really positive impact on the learners. For example, there are different criteria that define the best practice, each according to the type of learning. For instance, in the basic skills type of learning, the way the teachers deal with the adults and the method of using the course materials are the main criteria for measuring the best practice. In work based learning, on the other hand, the main criteria for best practice is the learners' numbers in the course, either the learners are in placement or working, and the objective of the courses.



It seems that the e- learning courses programme suit highly qualified people rather those with lower levels of qualifications. For example, in England it seems that e-learning (Learndirect programme) fits more with NVQ level 3 and above, although it has a good number of courses set for level 2 qualifications and below, but still some learners have a fear of IT. In some cases, like the assessment for people who have basic skills problems and people who do not speak English, it seems very difficult, especially for those who have no idea about IT. However, in England the gap between people and ICT is being closed. Also in e-learning in England there is no explicitly motivation to eliminate ICT illiteracy for people below the levels 2 and 3 NVQ, but this is one of the consequences of the programmes. What has happened in England can be used as one of the lessons by designing very simple learning courses to help people to use a computer take a first step towards IT literacy and learning.

In Egypt, the situation is totally different, the only programme for e-learning is targeted at university graduates only and not for illiterate people, although there are very good professionals in ICT and IT in Egypt, there is a gap between adults who have basic skills problems and ICT or IT.

Basic skills (literacy and numeracy) requires very qualified teachers and it is very important to get good quality teachers as a first step of learning, although in England there is a shortage in basic skills teachers however, the government has not used unskilled people to fill the shortage because they consider basic skills a very important learning approach. This can be seen to be a lesson learnt from the English example. In Egypt the situation is different, the government try to overcome two problems facing the Egyptian economy, unemployment and illiteracy, therefore they have allocated teachers who are not qualified to overcome the unemployment problem, which affects the quality of basic skills learning in Egypt.

Work-based learning is well planned and implement in England and has been used as best practice in the study, and there are many ideas presented in chapter 9 that Egypt can implement. The most significant finding is that although this program has two different approaches, classes based learning and distant learning the learner prefers the class based learning because it gives them more interaction, shared skills, more



self confidence, the ability to present ideas, group working skills and more support and answers for any queries they may have.

In the second part of the study related to Egypt, although there is a big difference between England and Egypt, the lessons learnt and best practice case studies produced from the first part of the research study in the North East of England helps in drawing initial project ideas to be implemented in Egypt to help in improve the workforce skills. The workforce target group in Egypt is the vocational training education system graduates from vocational institutes (colleges) as a recognised workforce and as the majority of the current workforce in Egypt.

### **10.3 STRENGTHS AND BENEFITS OF THE RESEARCH**

The research conducted in England has benefits in itself and for the researcher, these points are:

On the research, the learning approaches that the research investigated are part of a new trend in the world and help demonstrate the current approaches to teaching and learning and to attracting learners to gaining new skills and qualifications by starting their learning route.

Also the research had the advantage that there was a lot of secondary resources available for the research updating. This helped the researcher remain aware of changes in the learning approaches the research reviewed. However, sometimes the volume of resources made keeping up-to-date difficult.

The researcher had the chance to conduct around 80 interviews with different organisations, employers, employees and learners in the North East, which gives the research merit and provides further understanding of the circumstances and the system in England

Lastly, this research gives the researcher good knowledge and experience, and directs the researcher's ideas as a consultant working in the field of Human Resource Development and in learning and education in Egypt. The research was an intensive learning experiences for the researcher who will reflect on its experiences and the



knowledge gained through it. Also it will help the researcher to present ideas to increase skills and lead to economic reform and workforce training in Egypt.



# Bibliography

- Abernathy, D. (1999) Leading –Edge learning: Two Views. *Training and Development*. 53,(3),40-42.
- Adler, P. & P. (1987) *Membership Roles in Field Research*. Beverly Hills: Sage
- Agapiou, A., Price, Andrew, D.F. and McCaffer, R. (1995) *Planning future construction skill requirements: understanding labour resource issues*. *Construction Management and Economics*, 13 (2), 149–61
- Ahmed, R.(2005) *Future prospect towards a customer driven approach in Egypt: Higher education intuitions*, Egypt.
- Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit (ALBSU) (1993) *The Cost to British Industry: Basic Skills and the Workforce*, England
- ALI (2004) *Management statement: the ALI (Adult Learning Inspectors) vision*, England
- ALI (2003) *Annual report and accounts 2002-2003: July 2003*, ALI(Adult Learning Inspectors).
- Allred, John, and Allred, Joyce (2000) *Open Learning in Public Libraries: Impact on End Users*, Research Report 101, London: Department for Education and Employment, England.
- Al-Mashat, R. Grigorian, D. (1998) *Economic reforms in Egypt: Emerging patterns and their possible implications*. World Bank Document. AME Info (the Ultimate Middle East Business Resource) (2005) finance and Economy from [www.ameinfo.com](http://www.ameinfo.com)
- Anie,A.; Bruegel, I.; Fenton, M.; Jones, A. and Joyce; P. (2000) *The Graduate Labour Market in London: Focus Central London Training and Enterprise Council, South Bank University, and The University of North London*.England.
- Arab Republic of Egypt. (1999) *Proposed secondary education enhancement project*. Project information Document. Ministry of Education, Cairo.
- Ashworth, A. and Harvey, R.C. (1993) *The construction industry of Great Britain*, Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford.
- Aslanian, C.B., Brickell, H.M. (1980) *Americans in transition: Life changes as reasons for adult Learning*: College Entrance Examination Board New York
- Bailey, C.A. (1996) *A Guide to Field Research*, pine forge press, London.



Baptiste, R. (1999) *Human Rights: The Essential Reference*, University Declaration of Human rights, Oryx press, Indian.

Basic Skills Agency (2005) *Annual report for May 2005*. England

Basic Skills Agency (1997) *International Numeracy Survey: a Comparison of the Basic Numeracy Skills of Adults 16-60 in Seven Countries*, Basic Skills Agency: London

Bennett, R.J., Wicks, P. and McCoshan, A.(1994) *Local empowerment and business services: Britain's experiment with Training and Enterprise Councils*, UCL Press, London, 1994.

Bennett, R. J. and McCoshan, A. (1993) *Enterprise and human resource development: Local capacity building*, Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd., London, 1993.

Berger, J. (2000) *The importance of theory*, from Encyclopedia Britannica online on the World Wide Web: <http://www.suite101/article.cfm/8806/54817>

Berg, B. (1989) *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Bice-Stephens, Wyona (2001) Designing a Learning-Needs Survey – 10 Steps to Success”, *Journal of Continuing Education in Nursing* 32(4), 150-151.

Blumer, H. (1969) *Symbolic Interactionism: Perspective and Method*. Englewood Cliff, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Billett, S. (2000) *Learning and Work Allen*. London. Englnd.

Bohme, S., and Spiller, D. (1999) *Perspectives of Public Library Use 2: A Compendium of Survey Information*, 1999, Loughborough: LISU.

Boreham. N. Samurcay, R and Fischer, M. (Ed.) (2002) *Work Process Knowledge*, Routledge. London.

Bridge, H. and Salt, H. (1992) *Access and delivery in continuing education and training: A guide to contemporary literature*, Nottingham: University of Nottingham, Department of Adult Education and Employment Department.England.

Brockett, R. G., and Hiemstra, R. (1991) *Self-Direction in Adult Learning: Perspectives on Theory, Research and Practice*, Routledge. London.

Burgess, R. G. (1991a) *In the Field: An Introduction to Field Research*. Routledge .London. (First published 1984 by Unwin Hyman).

Businesslike (2005) *an overview of the Businesslike*, from the World Wide Web: [http://www. Businesslike.gov.uk](http://www.Businesslike.gov.uk)



- Burgess, R. G. (1991b) *The Unstructured Interview as a Conversation*. In R. G. Burgess (Ed.), *Field Research: a Sourcebook and Field Manual* ( 107-110). Routledge. London. (First published 1982 by Unwin Hyman).
- Bynner, J. and Parsons, S. (1997a.) *It Doesn't Get Any Better: The Impact of Poor Basic Skills on the Lives of 37 Year-Olds*, Basic Skills Agency: London.
- Candy P., C., (1990) *Self-direction for Lifelong Learning: A Comprehensive Guide to Theory and Practice*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisc.
- Cantor, J. A. (1992) *Delivering Instruction to Adult Learners*. Toronto: Wall & Emerson. (35-43).
- CDS (Centre for Development Services) (2002) *the Publicly-Funded skills training for vocational education in greater Cairo*, Egypt.
- Chambers, R. (1992) *Rural Appraisal: Rapid, Relaxed, and participatory*, Institute of Development Studies Discussion paper 311. Sussex: HELP.
- Christie, I. (1995) *TEC challenge evaluation*, Department for Education and Employment, 1995. England.
- CITB (1991) *Technological Change and Construction Skills in the 1990s*, Research Document, Construction Industry Training Board, Bircham Newton.
- Civil Society Yearbbook (1996) (in Arabic) *Ibn Khaldoun Centre*, Cairo, 18-51
- Clark, M.C., Caffarella, R.S. (Eds.). (1999) *An update on adult development theory: New ways of thinking about the life course*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Clarke, L. (1992) *The Building Labour Process: Problems of Skills, Training and Employment in the British Construction Industry in the 1980's*. Chartered Institute of Building, Englemere, Berkshire.
- Cochinaux, Ph. And De Woot, Ph. (1995) *Moving toward a learning society: Association of European universities*, European Roundtable, Brussels. Belgium
- Collins, M., (1988) *Self-directed learning or an emancipatory practice of adult education: Re-thinking the role of the adult educator*. Proceedings of the 29th Annual Adult Education Research Conference. Faculty of Continuing Education, University of Calgary. from <http://nlu.nl.edu/ace/Resources/Documents/AdultLearning.html>[6/14/02 10:37:38 AM] Brookfield: Adult Learning
- Coffey, A., & Atkinson, P. (1996) *Making Sense of Qualitative Data: Complementary Research Strategies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.



- Coffield, F. (2004) Alternativr routes out of the low skills equilibrium: a rejoinder to Lloyd& Payne. *Journal of Education policy*, Vol. 19 no.6. November 2004.
- Coffield, F. (2002a) *Britain's Continung Failure to train*: The birth pangs of a new policy. *J. Education policy*, Vol. 17, no.4.
- Coffield, F. (2002b) Skills for the Future: I've got a little list. *Assessment in Education*, vol.9,no.1
- Coffield, F.(ed.) (2000a) *Differing Visions of a learning Society*. Hobbs. LTd, Great Britain.
- Coffield, F. (2000b) *Lifelong Learning as a lever on structural Change?* Evaluation of White Paper: Learning to Succeed: a new framework for post-16 Learning. *J. Education policy*, 2000, Vol.15, no.2.
- Coffield, F. (1999) *Breaking the Gnsensus: lifelong Learning as social control*: *British Education Research Journal*, Vol.25, no.4.
- Coffield, F. (ed.) (1997) *A National strategy for Lifelong Learning*, Newcastle Upon Tyne, England: Newcastle University.
- Cohen, D. and Prusak, L. (2001) *In Good Company*. How social capital makes organizations work, Boston, Ma.: Harvard Business School Press
- Coleman, J. C. (1990) *Foundations of Social Theory*, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Connexion (2005) *the connexion overview* from the World Wide Web: <http://www.connexion.co.uk>
- Cook, T., & Campbell, D. (1979) *Quasi-Experimentation*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Coppola, N., Hiltz, S., & Rotter, N. (2002) Becoming a virtual professor: pedagogical roles and asynchronous learning networks. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 18 (4), 169-189.
- Corbetta, P. (2003) *Social Research: Theory, Methods and Techniques*, SAGE publication, London.
- Cranton, P. (1992) *Working with Adult Learners*. Toronto: Wall & Emerson. ( 13-15 and 40-63.)
- Crowley-Bainton, T. (1993) *TECs and employers Building effective links*, Research Series No. 13, Department for Education and Employment. England.
- Cullen, J., Batterbury, S., Foresti, M., Lyons, C., Stern, E., (2000) *Informal Learning and Widening Participation*: The Tavistock Institute, London.



- Cullen, J. (1999) Socially Constructed Learning: A commentary on the Concept of the Learning organisation. *The Learning organisation* 6, no.1: 45-52.
- Daines, J.; Daines, C. and Graham, B. (2002) *Adults Learning adults Teaching*. (3Ed.). Academic Press. Welsh.
- Dale, Sh. (1979) *The Adult Independent Learning Project: Work With Adult Self-Directed Learners in Public Libraries*, *Journal of Librarianship* 11(2), 83:107.
- Davies, Maurice (1993) *Editorial, Museums Journal* 93 (5), p7.
- Dearing, Ron. Sir (1997) *Higher Education in the Learning Society: The national committee of inquiry into higher education- England*.
- Deakin, S. and Morris, G. (2001) *Labour Law, (3Ed), printed in England By Clays Ltd, London*.
- Dench, S. and Regan, J. (2000) *Learning in Later Life: Motivation and Impact*, : Institute for Employment Studies. London.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994) Introduction: Entering the Field of Qualitative Research In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (1-17). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- DfEE (2001) *Skills for life: the National strategy for Improving Adult Literacy and Numeracy Skills*, DfEE. England.
- Department for Education and Employment/Department for Culture, Media and Sport (2001), *Government's response to Empowering the Learning Community*. DfEE/DCMS. London.
- DfEE (2000) *National Learning Targets for England for 2002*, NorthEast, Tyne and Wear: DfEE
- DfEE (1999a) *Learning to Succeed: a new framework for post- 16 learning*, London.
- DfEE (1999b) *Skills and Enterprise Briefing*, February.London.
- Department for Education and Employment (DfEE) (1999c), *Improving Literacy and Numeracy: a Fresh Start, Great Britain Working Group on Post-School Basic Skills* chaired by Sir Claus Moser, Department for Education and Employment: London.
- DfES (1998a) *The Learning Age: A Renaissance for a New Britain* London: DfEE.
- DfEE (1998b) *TECs: Meeting the Challenge of the Millenium*, London: DfEE
- DfEE (1995a) *Evaluation of the Open Learning Credits Pilot Programme Summary report*, Research Series 45, Department for Education and Employment.



DfEE (1995b) *The Training and Enterprise Directory* 1995, Kogan Page, London, 1995.

DfEE (1994) *Training for Work: Keys to success*, Department for Education and Employment Sep. 1994.

DEFERA(Department for Environment, food and Rural Affairs) (2005) *Securing the Future: UK sustainable development strategy*. DEfRA. London.

DfES (2006) *Survey on Perception and use of NVQ: A survey of Employers in England*, DfES.

DfES (2005a) *Education Skills White Paper*, February 2005, Norwich.London

DfES (2005b) *Apprenticeships task force final report 2005*. DfES.London.

DfES (2005c) *Getting on in Business, getting on at work*, 2005.DfES.

DfES (2005d May) *the summery of job Centre plus*. From online on the World Wide Web [www.jobcentreplus.gov.uk](http://www.jobcentreplus.gov.uk).

DfES (2003a) *The Future of Higher Education*, London, DfES.

DFES (2003b) *21<sup>st</sup> century skills: realising our potential*. DFES.

DfES (2002a) *Success for All: Reforming Further Education and Training*, London: DfES

DFES (2002b) *Delivering Skills for Life Strategy 2002*: DFES

Draves, W.A. (1984) *How to teach adults: The Learning Resources Network*. Manhattan

Drodge, S. (1988) *Adult Education, Newcastle-under-Lyme*: AAL Publishing.

Drucker, J., and White, G. (1996) *Managing People in Construction*, Institute of Personnel and Developmen, London. 107–11.

DTI (2005 May) *the DTI Vision and role* from online on the World Wide Web [www.DTI.gov.uk](http://www.DTI.gov.uk).

DTI (1995) *Competitiveness: Helping business win*, Competitiveness: Forging ahead, May 1995.

Durham University (ICRRDS), Miles Strategic Consulting Ltd and White Young Green Ltd (March 2005) “*Social Capital and Economic Development in the North East of England: Promoting Economic Inclusion through Community Based Programmes and Projects*” from [www.onenortheast.gov.uk](http://www.onenortheast.gov.uk)



- DWP (2004) Publication of DWP research: *Evaluation of the Childcare Partnership Manager Role* by John Barker, Jane Ireland, Virginia Morrow, Fiona Smith and Valerie Hey of Brunel University
- DWP(2005) *department background* from online on the World Wide Web [www.DWP.gov.uk](http://www.DWP.gov.uk).
- Ebbutt, D. (1996) *Universities, Work-based Learning: Issues about Knowledge Research in Post-Compulsory Education Journal*. Vol 1, No. 3. 357-372
- Ecclestone, K. (1999) Care or Control? Defining Learners' Needs for Lifelong Learning'', *British Journal of Educational Studies* 47(4), 332-47.
- Eeghen, W. (2000) *Education and economic growth in Middle East and North Africa*, Cairo, Egypt.
- Egypt government (2003) *statistic report for 2002/2003*, Egypt. Cairo
- Economic Overview (2005) from online on the World Wide Web [www.egyptinvest.com/en/climate/asp](http://www.egyptinvest.com/en/climate/asp)
- Eisenstadt, M., & Vincent, T. (2000) *The knowledge web: Learning and collaborating on the Net*, UK: Kogan Page.
- Elliott, G. (1999) *Lifelong Learning: The Politics of the new Learning Environmnt.* Jessica Kingsley. London.
- El Amrani, I. (2004) *More economic reform in Egypt*, September 2004), Egypt, Cairo.
- Ellis-King, Deirdre (1986) *The Role of the Public Library in Education*, An Leabharlaan 3(4), 99-108.
- El-Hamidi, F. (2005) *Twenty-fifth Annual Meeting of: The Middle East Economic Association (MEEA)*, Allied Social Science Associations, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, January 7-9, 2005
- ElMahdi, A. (2003) *Labor in Egypt: Global policy network: faculty of economics and politics and political science*, Cairo University.
- El-Milkawy, N. and Handoussa, H. (2002) *Institutional Reform Economic Development in Egypt*, The American university in Cairo press, Egypt.
- Eraut, M. (2003) *Learning in the workplace – a framework for analysis*. Paper presented at the EARLI Conference on Working and Learning, Transfer of Knowledge between Education and Workplace Settings In Rainbird, H and Fuller, A. Conext, Power and Attainment at Work' Kogan Page



- Eraut, M., Alderton, J., Cole, G., and Senker, P. (1998) *Development of Knowledge and Skills in Employment* Final Report of a Research Project funded by 'The Learning Society' Programme of the Economic and Social Research Council: University of Sussex Institute of Education
- Eraut, M & Cole, G (1993) *Assessing competence in the professions*, Sheffield, Employment Department.
- Erlandson, D. A., Harris, E. L., Skipper, B. L., & Allen, S. D. (1993) *Doing Naturalistic Inquiry: A Guide to Methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Essam El-Din, G. (2003) Education in Flux, *Al-Ahram newspaper*, 31 July-6 August, no.649, Cairo, Egypt.
- Fahmy, H. and Galal, A. (1999) *Economic reform today: Ideas into action: think tanks and democracy*, Egypt, Cairo
- Fellows, R., Gale, A.W., Hancock, M.R. and Langford, D. (1995) *Human Resources Management in Construction*, Longman, London.
- Fenwick, T. (1995) *Limits of the Learning Organisation: A critical look*. Antigonish, Nova Scotia: St. Francis Xavier University, (ED 40/395).
- Field, J. and Leicester, M. (2000) *Lifelong learning: Education Across the Lifespan*. Routledge Falmer, London.
- Field, L. (1991) *Guglielmino's self-directed learning readiness scale: Should it continue to be used?* Adult Ed. Q. 41, 100-103.
- Flick, U. (1998) *An Introduction to Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.
- Ford, N (1980) Relating 'Information Needs' to Learner Characteristics in Higher Education", *Journal of Documentation* 36(2), 99-114.
- Fryer, R. H. et al. (1999) *Creating Learning Cultures: Next steps in Achieving the Learning age*. National advisory Group for Continuing Education and lifelong learning, UK.
- Frey, J. and Oishi, S.M. (1995) *How to Conduct Interviews by telephone and in person*, SAGA, London.
- Gateshead (2006) *the overview of the college*, from online on the World Wide [www.gateshede.ac.uk](http://www.gateshede.ac.uk)
- Gary Becker (1978) *The Economic Approach to Human Behavior, and other works*, University of Chicago press, Chicago.
- Gazeley, I. and Newell, A. (1999) *Unemployment in Britain since 1945*. School of Social Sciences, University of Sussex Brighton. England.



- Gibson C., C., (1992) *Distance education: On focus and future*. Adult Ed. Q. 42 (3): 167-179
- Gilley, J. W. and Eggland, S. A.(1990) *Principles of Human Resources Development*. Addison-Wesley publishing company. USA.
- Gilley, J.W. & Eggland, S.A.,(1989) *Principles of Human Resource Development*, Addison-Wesley, NY.
- Gilley, J. W. (1989) *Principles of Human Resource Development*, Reading Mass. Addison-wesley in association with University Association.
- Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967) *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*: Aldine de Gruyter. New York.
- Griffin, K. (1938) *Implementing a human development strategy*/keit griffin and terry Mc Kinley: Foreword by Mahbub UlHag.
- Green, F., Felstead, A., and Gallie, D. (1998) *Changing Skill-Intensity: an Analysis Based on Job Characteristics*, working paper. England
- Gruneberg, S.L. (1997) *Construction Economics – An Introduction*, Macmillan, London, pp. 21–36, 98–120. Key Note Report (1997) UK Construction Industry 1997 Market Review, 6th Edn, p.15
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1989) *Fourth Generation Evaluation*. Newbury Park, Sage.
- Hake, B. J. (winter 1999) Lifelong Learning in late Modernity: The Challenges to society, organisations and individuals. *Adult Education Quarterly* 49, no.2: 79-90.
- Halliday, F. (2005) *Democratic reform in the Arab World: mirages and realities: open Democracy: free thinking for the world*, London School of Economic, London.
- Hammond, M., Collins R (1991) *Self-directed learning: Critical Practice*. Kogan Page, London
- Handoussa,H. and Potter,G. (1994) (eds.) *Employment and Structural Adjustment: Egypt in the 1990s*, American University in Cairo, Egypt.
- Harris, H. (2000) *Defining the Future of Reliving the past?* Union Employers, and the challenge of workplace learning. Information series no.380. Columbus: ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education, Centre on Education and raining for Employment, the Ohio state University.



- Harris, Duncan, and Bell, Chris (1994) *Evaluating and Assessing for Learning* (2nd ed), London: Kogan Page.
- Harvey, L. (1990) *Critical Social Research*. London: Unwin Hyman.
- Hein, George E., (1991) Constructivist Learning *Theory*, The Museums and the Needs of People, CECA (*International Committee of Museum Educators*) *Conference paper*.
- Hellsall, R. Harrison, I. and Owen, R. (1998) Flexible Learning: The Needs and Perceptions of young people, *Journal of Education and Work*, 11 (1), 57-75
- Hogarth, T. et al. (1998) *Employers Net Costs of Training to NVQ Level 2*, IER, University of Warwick, DfEE RR 57.
- Holland, J. and Blackburn, J. (Eds. (1998) *Whose Voice? Participatory Research and Policy Change*, IT publications. London.
- Holford, J.; Jarvis, P.; and Griffin, C. (1998) *International perspectives of lifelong learning*. Kogan page, London, England.
- Holmberg, B. (1997) *Theory and practice of distance education*. Routledge. New York
- Honey, P. and Mumford, A. (1982) *Manual of Learning Styles*: P Honey, London:
- Holstein, J., & Gubrium, J. (1995) *The Active Interview*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Hooper-Greenhill, Eilean, and Moussouri, Theano (2001) *Researching Learning In Museums and Galleries 1990 – 1999: A Bibliographic Review*, Leicester: University of Leicester
- Hornsby-Smith, M. (1993) *Gaining access*. In N. Gilbert (Ed.), *Researching Social Life* ( 52-67). London: Sage.
- Hull, Barbara (2000) *Barriers Discouraging Access to Libraries as Agents of Lifelong Learning*, LIC Report 31, London.
- Hunt, C. (October 1999) Candlesticks and Faces: Aspects of Lifelong learning. *Studies in the education of adults* 31, no. 2: 197-209.
- Ibrahim, S.E. (1996) Reform and frustration in Egypt, *Journal of Democracy* 7 no.4:125-135
- IFF Research( 1994) *Skills Needs in Britain* IFF Research, London, 1994.
- Ingram, D. S. (2000) *The Andragogical Librarian*, *Reference for Librarian*, pp.141-150.



- IONP (Institute of National Planning (1996) *Egypt: Human Development Report* 1995, Cairo, Egypt.
- James, W. B. and Galbraith, M.W. (June 1984) Perceptual Learning Styles: implications and Techniques for Practitioners. *Lifelong learning*, 7 (10): 20-23.
- Jarvis, P. (1987) *Adult Learning in the Social Context*. Croom Helm, London.
- Jensen, K.B. and Jankowski, N.W.(1991) (ed.) *A handbook of Qualitative Methodology for mass Communication research*. London.
- Kaplan-Leiserson, E. (2001) *Aged to perfection. Training and Development*. Oct. 2001. Retrieved July 4, 2004 from [http://www.findarticles.com\\_database](http://www.findarticles.com_database).
- Keegan, D.( 1983) *Theories of distance education*. In Distance Education: International Perspectives, (Eds.) D. Sewart, D. Keegan, and B. Holmberg,63-67. London: Routledge.
- Keep, E. (2002) The English Vocational Education and Training Policy Debate – Fragile ‘Technologies’ or Opening the ‘Black Box’: two competing visions of where we go next, *Journal of Education and Work*, 15(4): 457-479.
- Kettner, P., Moroney, R. and Martin, L. (1990) *Desingning and Managing Programs: An Effectiveness-Bases Approach*, Sage publication, London.
- Kirk, J., & Miller, M. L. (1986) *Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Kitzinger, J. and Barbour, R.S. (1999) *Developing focus group research: politices, theory and practice*, Sage, London.
- Knowles, Malcolm (1990) *The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species* (4th Ed.), London: Gulf Publishing.
- Knowles, M. S. (1985) *Andragogy in Action*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Knowles, Malcolm, S. (1980) *the Definition classic in Adult Education and Human Resource development* (5<sup>th</sup> Ed.). London.
- Kolb, D. A., Rubin, I. M. and OSLAND J (1991) *Organizational Behavior; an experiential approach* (5th edition) Englewood Cliffs, N J: Prentice-Hall
- KOLB D A (1984) *Experiential Learning: experience as the source of learning and development* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall .
- Lava, J.(1991) *Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral participation*, Jean Lave, Etienne Wenger- Cambridge- England: Cambridge University press



- Lave, J. and Wenger, E. (1991) *Situated Learning: Learning in doing*, Learning psychology of Transfer of Learning, Cambridge, England.
- Lave, J. (1988) (Ed.) *Understanding practice: perspectives on activity and context*: Learning. Cambridge- England.
- La Valle, Ivana, and Blake, Margaret (2001) *National Adult Learning Survey* (NALS), London: National Centre for Social Research.
- Lasswell, H. (1970) *The Analysis of Political behaviour*: an empirical approach: Routledge kegan paul.
- Learndirect (2004) *overview of learndirect* from online on the World Wide <http://www.learndirect.gov.uk>
- Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1989) Ethics: the failure of positivist science. *Review of Higher Education* 12(3), 221-240.
- Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. G. (1985) *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Lindeman E. C. L. (1926) *The Meaning of Adult Education*. New Republic, New York
- Lindner, Reinhard (1998) A Framework to Identify Learning Needs for Continuing Nurse Education Using Information Technology”, *Journal of Advanced Nursing* 27, 1017-20
- Lippitt, G. and Lippitt, R. (1986) *The Consulting Process in Action*, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. San Diego, CA: University Associates.
- Lofland, J. & L. (1984) *Analyzing Social Settings*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Lofland, J. (1972) *Analysing Social Settings*. Belmont: Wadsworth.
- Longworth, N. (1999) *Making lifelong learning work*: Learning cities for a learning century, Kogan page, London.
- Longworth, N. and Davies, W. K. (1998) *Lifelong Learning* . Kogan page. London.
- Long, H. B. (1983) *Adult learning: Research and practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Lord Chancellor’s Department (1999) *Government Policy on Archives* from online on the World Wide <http://www.pro.gov.uk/archives/archivepolicy>.
- Lowy, L., O’Connor, D. (1986) *Why education in the later years?* Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath and Company.
- LSC (2006) *Skills and Education Network Newsletter*, Issue 46, March from online on the World Wide <http://www.lsc.co.uk>.



- LSC (2005a) *An Assessment of Learning and Skills Needs in Tyne & Wear 2004*, LSC. England.
- LSC (2005b) *From here to sustainability: the learning and skills council's strategy from sustainable development*. September 2005.LSC.
- LSC (2004a) the learning and Skills Council announces *a new regional management structure, press release*, 7 January 2004, LSC.
- LSC (2004b) *The skills we need: our Annual Statement of priorities* for 2005/6.
- LSC (2004c) *LSC priorities and strategy for 2004/2005*, Tyne and Wear. LSC.
- LSC (2004d) *Community Need Assessment* for Tyne and Wear, LSC
- LSC (2003) *Need assessment for employer* in Tyne and Wear sectors 200
- LSC (2002a) *Strategic plane* for Tyne and Wear 2002-2005: LSC
- LSC (2002) *Successful Participation for All*. LSC.
- Lucas, A.M., and McManus, P. (1986) Investigating Learning from Informal Sources: Listening to Conversations and Observing Play in Science Museums, *European Journal of Science Education* 8(4), 341-52.
- Lutterodt, S.A. (1983) *principles of Instructional Design*. Columbia MD.GP Courseware (in Gilly and Eggland 1990).
- Mabey , Ch., and Iles, P.(Ed.s) (1994) *Managing Learning*, London: Routledge.
- Machin, S. and Vignoles, A. (2001) *The Economic Benefits of Training to the Individual*, the Firm and the Economy: The Key Issues, Centre for the Economics of Education.
- Marchington, M. (2005) *Human Resource at Work: people management and development* (3<sup>rd</sup>), London.
- Marja, V.Y. (1992) Andragogical Problems of building a democratic Society. *Int. J. of lifelong*, Ed.11 (4): 321-328.
- Marriam, S. B. and Caffarella, R. S. (1999) *Learning in Adulthood: A Comprehensive guide*, (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. ). Jossey- Bass. San Francisco.
- Martin, I. (2000) *Reconstituting the Agora: Towards an Alternative politics of lifelong leaning* . in proceedings of the 41<sup>st</sup> Annual Adult Education Research conference, edited by T.J.Sork, V-L. chapman, and R.St. clair,pp.255-260. Vancouver, BC; University of British Columbia.



- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ministry of Economic (MOE)(2003) *The government statistic report for 2000/2003*.Egypt
- Megahed, N. (2002) *Secondary Education Reforms in Egypt: Rectifying Inequality of Educational and Employment Opportunities*, Egypt, Cairo
- Moreland, Neil, and Carnwell, Ros (2001) Co-opting Learners: Addressing their Learning Support Needs Through a Learning Support Needs Questionnaire: Part One: the Rationale and Basis of the Learning Support Needs Questionnaire, *Research in Post-Compulsory Education* 6(1), pp. 173-191.
- Morsick, V.J.; Botterman, J; and Van der veen, R. (2000) *From the Learning Orgainsation to Learning Communities toward a Learning Society*. Information Series No. 382. Columbus: ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education. Centre on Education and Training for Employment, the Ohio state University.
- Morton, R., and Jagger, D. (1995) *Design and the Economics of Building*, Chap.5.E&FN spon. London.
- Mouton, J.S., and Blake, R.R. (1984) *Synergogy: A New strategy for Education, Training and Development*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass
- Moussouri, Th. (2001) *Researching learning in Museums and galleries 1990-1999*: university of Leicester, Licester.
- Nadler, L. (Ed.) (1986) *Handbook of Human Resource Development*. New York. Wiley.
- National statistic (2005, November 22<sup>nd</sup> at 9:30) *electronic preference formats by labour force survey* from the world wide web: <http://www.statistic.gov.uk/population> and migration.
- National statistic (2005, July) *electronic preference formats for unempmployement in England*, from the world wide web: <http://www.statistic.gov.uk>
- NCIHE (1997) *Higher Education in the learning society* (The Dearing Report) Norwich HMSO
- Neale, B. (1983) *An Investigation of the Learning Needs of Adults in Islington*, London: Inner London Education Authority/London Borough of Islington Library Service, Joint Learners' Advisory Service Research Project.
- Newcastle College (2004) *ACC fact sheet for 2004 for Newcastle college*. England.



- Newcastle City Council (2005) from the world wide web: <http://www.newcastle.gov.uk>
- Newsom, J. (1963) *half our future*: a report of the central advisory council for education, London, Great Britain, Ministry of Education
- NFER (1999) *A Literature Review of Young People's Attitudes Towards Education*, Employment and Training, DfEE RR 170.
- Nichols, M. (2001) *Teaching for learning*, Palmerston North: TrainInc.co.nz
- Nichols, P. (1991) *Social Survey Methods*: A field guide for Development Workers, Oxfam Publication.
- OECD (1998) *Human Capital Investment: An International Comparison*, Paris, Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development.
- Oliver, P., ed. (1999) *Lifelong and Continuing Education*: what is a learning Society. Brookfield, VT: Ashgate.
- O'Mahoney, M. and De Boer (2002) *Britain's Relative Productivity Performance*, Updates to 1999, NIESR. Final report to the DTI.
- Otala, M. (June 1995) *The Learning Organisation*: theory into practice. *Industry & Higher Education* 9, no. 3:157-164.
- Office for National Statstic (2005) *Labour Force Survey*, published on 22 Novemebr from the world wide web <http://www.Statstic.gov.uk>
- Parsons, S., and Bynner, J. (1998) *Influences on Adult Basic Skills*: Factors Affecting the Development of Literacy And Numeracy from Birth To 37, The Basic Skills Agency: London.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990) *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Peraton, H. (1981) *A theory for distance education*. *Prospects*, 11 (1), 13-24.
- Popkewitz, T. (1990) *Whose future? Whose past?* In E. Guba, E. (Ed.), *The Paradigm Dialog*. Newbury Park: Sage.
- Popper, M., and Lipshitz, R. (June 2000) Orgainsational Learning: Mechanism, Culture, and Feasibility. *Management Learning* 31, no.2: 181-196.
- Putnam, R. and Alone, B. (2000) *The Collapse and Revival of American Community*, New York: Touchstone,



- Putnam, R. D. (1995) '*Bowling Alone: America's Declining Social Capital*', *Journal of Democracy* 6:1, Jan, 65-78. from the world wide web  
[http://muse.jhu.edu/demo/journal\\_of\\_democracy/v006/putnam.html](http://muse.jhu.edu/demo/journal_of_democracy/v006/putnam.html)
- Putnam, R. D. (2000) *Bowling Alone. The collapse and revival of American community*, New York
- Putnam, R. D. (1993) *Making Democracy Work. Civic traditions in modern Italy*, Princeton NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Raelin, J.A. (2000) *Work-Based Learning: The New Frontier of Management Development* New Jersey: Prentice Hall
- Raggatt, P. and Williams, S. (1999) *Government, Markets and Vocational Qualifications*, London: Falmer Press.
- Rainbird, H. (1991) *Labour force fragmentation and skills supply in the British construction industry*. In *Restructuring A Traditional Industry*, Rainbird, H. and Syben, G. (eds), Berg, Oxford, 201–20
- Ravenscroft, A. (2001) *Designing E-learning Interactions in the 21st Century: revisiting and rethinking the role of theory*. *European Journal of Education*, 36 (2), 133-156.
- RDA (2006) *Regional Economic Strategy for NorthEast for 2006*: One NorthEast.
- RDA (2005) *The Regional Skills Partnership, Skills strategy 2005/2006*. One NorthEast.
- RDA (2004) *Annual Report for 2004*. One NorthEast.
- RDA (2003) *Regional Economic Strategy for NorthEast for 2003/2006*: One NorthEast
- Resnick, L.B. (1987) *Education and Learning to think*, Washington, D.C. National Academy press.
- Reynolds, R., and Ablett, A. (1998) *Transforming the Rhetoric of Organisational Learning to the Reality of the Learning organisation*. *The learning organisation* 5, no. 1 (1998): 24-35.
- Robson, C. (2001) *Real World Research: A resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner- Researchers*, Blackwell, Oxford.
- Robinson, P. (1997) *Literacy and Numeracy and Economic Performance*, Working Paper No. 888, Centre for Economic Performance, London School of Economics.



- Rogers, G., & Bouey, E. (1996) Collecting Your Data. L. M. Tutty, M. Rothery, R. M. Grinnell, Jr. (Eds.), *Qualitative Research for Social Workers: Phases, Steps, and Tasks* (4th ed.), (50-87). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Rogers, J. (1977) *Adults Learning*: Second Edition. The open university. New York.
- Rothery, M. (1993) *The Positivist Research Approach*. In R. Grinnell (Ed.), *Social Work Research and Evaluation*, New York: F. E. Peacock.
- Rothstein, R. (October 27, 1999) *Shortage of skills? A high-Tech Myth*. New York Times, Sec. B, P.9.
- Roy, L., and Novotny, E. (2000) How Do We Learn? Contributions of Learning Theory to Reference Service and Library Instruction, *Reference Librarian* 69-70, (129-139).
- Russell, T. (1994) The Enquiring Visitor: Usable Learning Theory for Museum Contexts, *Journal of Education in Museums* 15, from the world wide web [www.gem.org.uk/russell.html](http://www.gem.org.uk/russell.html).
- Sall, K. (1997) *Future fantastic*. *Contract Journal*, 6 August, pp.10–1.
- Sargant, N. (2000) *The Learning Divide Revisited: A Report of the Findings of a UK-wide Survey on Adult Participation in Education and Learning*, Leicester: NIACE.
- Savicevic, D. M. (1991) Modern conceptions of andragogy: A European framework. *Studs. in the Ed. Of Adults*. 23 (2): 179-201
- Sayer, D. E. (1981) "Towards Individuality: The School Library?", *School Librarian* 29(3), pp. 216-220.
- Schuller, T. (April 1998) three steps Towards A Learning Society. *Studies in the Education of Adults* 30, no. 1:11-20.
- Seale, C. (1999) *The Quality of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.
- Senge, P.N. (1990) *The Fifth Discipline: The Art & Practice of the Learning Organisation* London: Century Business
- Shaw, I. (1999) *Qualitative Evaluation*. London: Sage.
- Sheppard, T. (2002) "The learning journey." Navy Supply Corps Newsletter. June-August, 2002. Retrieved July 4, 2004 from the world wide web <http://www.findarticles.com> database.
- Shousha, F.M. and Pautsch, G.R. (1997) Economic reform and aggregate Cropping patterns for Egypt, volume 17, no.2, pp.265-275(11). *Agriculture Economic Institute*, Ministry of agriculture, Cairo, Egypt.



- Silverman, D. (1983) *Interpreting Qualitative Data: Methods for Analysing Talk, Text and Interaction*. London: Sage.
- Smith, P.A.C., and Tosey, P. (1999) Assessing the Learning Organisation: Part1 – Theoretical Foundations. *The learning organisation* 6, no.2:70-75.
- Smith R M (ed.) (1990) *Learning to Learn Across the Lifespan*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco
- Smith, Vernon (1987) *Public Libraries and Adult Independent Learners*, Council for Educational Technology, Working Paper 27, London: Council for Educational Technology.
- Social Science Information Gateway (2005, May) *Statistics and data* from the World Wide Web: <http://www.sosig.ac.uk/statistics>.
- Srinivasan ,T.N. (2005) “*Stanford centre for international development :Working Paper No. 253*” Challenges of Economic Reform in Egypt . Stanford University
- SSDA (2004) *working future2004-2014* : a National report. Skills for Business, Institute for Employment Research, University of Warwick.
- Steinbach, R. and Leithwood, K. (1993) Total Quality Leadership: Expert Thinking plus Transformational Practice, *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, V2, No.4, pp311:37, December.
- Steinbach, R. O. (1993) *Change Leadership for change times*: Educational Leadership: Open university press, Buckingham
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998) *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Swain, L. (1995) "Aging and the aged." Encyclopedia of nursing and allied health. Retrieved June 25, 2004 from the world wide web <http://www.findarticles.com> database.
- Tam, M. (2000) *Constructivism, instructional design, and technology: Implications for transforming distance learning*. *Educational Technology & Society*, 3 (2), 50-60.
- Taskforce Employer for Apprentices (2005) *Apprenticeships Task Force* final report: the Business case for Apprenticeships
- The Training and Enterprise Directory (1995), Kogan page, London
- The Investment Law book (1997) *The Arab Republic of Egypt*, Cairo, Centre for development services.



- The World Bank (1999) *'What is Social Capital?'* from the world wide web  
<http://www.worldbank.org/poverty/scapital/whatsc.htm>
- Thomas, J.C. (1996) *Direct action. Building*, 3 May, pp. 36–38. 862 Mackenzie et al. Thyer, B. (1989). First Principles of Practice Research. *British Journal of Social Work* 19(4),
- Titmus, Colin (1993) *The Scope and Characteristics of Educational Provision for Adults*, in Calder, Judith (ed), *Disaffection and Diversity: Overcoming Barriers for Adult Learners*, London: Falmer Press, pp. 68-83.
- Tjepkema, S; Horst, H.M. ter; Mulder, M.; Scheerens, J. (2000) *Future challenges for human resource development professionals in Europe: Final report (executive summary)*. A project funded by the European Commission: Programme on Targeted Socio-Economic Research (TSER).
- Tough, A. (1971) *The Adult's Learning Projects. A Fresh Approach to Theory and Practice in Adult Learning*, Ontario: Institute for Studies in Education.
- Training Standards Council (January, 2000) *Inspection report " Training and Enterprise Council (SOLOTEC)*: South London: Direct Delivery Team.
- Training agency (1989) *Training in Britain: A study of funding, activity and attitudes*. London.
- UFI (2005) *UFI/Learndirect policy briefing: Issue no.9 July 2005*.
- UFI (2004) *Courses Guide: Helping you fit learning into your life*, UFI.
- UFI (2002) *Annual Review 2002-2003*: UFI
- UNDP (2000) *Guidebook on participation: resources for promoting participation* retrieved January 2001.
- UNDP (1998) *Human Resource Report*, New York
- Unwin, L (1993) Training credits: the pilot doomed to succeed, in the Reform of Post-16 Education and Training in England and Wales, eds W Richardson and D Finegold, Longman, Harlow.
- Unwin, L. and Wellington, J. (2001) *Young People's Perspectives on Education, Training and Employment*, London: Kogan Page.
- Vaughan, P.(1993) *TECs and employers: Building effective links Pt1*, Research Series No. 12, Department for Education and Employment, 1993.
- Vooglaide Y. and Marja T. (1992) Andragogical problems of building a democratic society. *Int. J. of Lifelong Ed.* 11 (4): 321-328 from the world wide web  
<http://nlu.nl.edu/ace/Resources/Documents/AdultLearning.html>



VONNE (2005) from the world wide web at [www.vonne.co.uk](http://www.vonne.co.uk)

Watson, D. (2001) *Pedagogy before technology*: Re-thinking the relationship between ICT and teaching. *Education and Information Technologies*, 6 (4), 251-266.

Webber, A.M.(October 2000) *Will Companies Ever Learn?*. *Fast company* no.39:274-282.

Weller, M. (2002) *Delivering learning on the Net*, UK: Kogan Page

World Bank (2005) *World bank Country Assistance strategy (CAS)* for Egypt, June 2005

World Bank (2003) *The World Bank participation sourcebook 2003*. Washington, DC, World Bank. 276pp.

Worrell, D. (September 1995) The Learning Organisation: Management Theory for the information Age or New Age Fad?. *Journal of Academic Librarianship* 21, no.5: 351-357.



APPENDIX 1: Example of interviews notes Transcripts

One Northeast		
Topic	Interview note	Research observation
	<p>Name: Chris Taylor Position: Skills Specialist Advisor Workforce Development Location: One northeast Address: Stella House, Goldcrest Way, Newburn Riverside, Newcastle Upon Tyne NE15 8NY Time/ and duration 9.00 am to 10.00pm 1 hr.</p>	
One northeast structure with its partners	<p>The one northeast has prelateship with ODPM, DWP, DTL, and DFES. One northeast is informed by the regional economic strategy RES, we are one of 9 regional office (as it has shown in the diagram), the organisation is informed by the DTI (Department for Trade and industry) but we are NDPB (Non-Departmental public Body) and each office from theses 9 offices has its own strategy. However there is cooperation between our office and other 2 offices Northeast-West England and Yorkshire forward. The cooperation is in sharing the skills and experiences and even in managing projects together.</p>	
Kind of cooperation		
What is one northeast's partners	<p>There are many partners but the most significant partners are LSC,SSK which it has 25 sectors, Government offices, higher education funding council for England, local authorities, job centre plus .</p> <p>RSP the regional Skills Partnership which there office for northeast located her in one northeast building. We work according to the priorities listed by and identified by RSP. I can say the RSP is arranged the relationship with other partners. However we are as a funding organisation we not funding according to the RSP priorities but according to the demand and needs because there are certain areas funded and covered by other placed for example LSC is covered the NVQ's areas.</p>	<p>Job centre plus in Sheffield</p> <p>There are 3 people allocated in RSP her in one northeast</p> <p>I have RSP contact from Chris, I will try to contact them</p>
What about project you running now	<p>On the strategy level our organisation is to lead to economic development strategy in northeast implementation.</p> <p>On the level of funding we fund agency and organisation and projects, we a cooperation plane. Our projects such as :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>Stimulating demand for skills among individuals and employers</li><li>Flexible new inventive profession</li><li>Raising aspiration (between young people 11-21 age) in school or university, helping people in enterprising, for example if the students achieved a good result they will get a job or fund to complete their studying. Also we have such as</li><li>ASPIRE, that funded by Onenortheast, LSC and Connection (career services). That project about understand. The opportunity.</li><li>Knowledge transfer and graduated employment which northeast with business company target to achieve more than</li></ul>	<p>is mentioned they offered the students job specially if he come from uneducated family However there is equal opportunity for the job opportunity for other people.</p>
<p>This has to show the opportunities their future job</p> <p>other project</p>		



	<p>NVQ level 3 and 4, the idea is based on one northeast bring professors in different sectors for the company, professors set with employees and give them training (cascading knowledge) to raise the qualification level of the employees and to makes them gain high level of skills. The costs for this scheme is shared between company and one northeast, and that encourage the company to raise the qualification for its employees.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>There is other scheme it is national scheme it calls KTP it is a pilot project and it work in specific sectors such as food and drink, this scheme support individuals and companies. Basically in funding.</li> </ul>	
Identify learning needs	<p>One northeast is lie on the needs that identified by LSC,SSC(sector and skills council), RSP, Sine(skills industrial Northeast), evaluation from other project done by consultancies, other partners from government and assembly and job centre plus, but job centre with limits.</p>	<p>• Fees fully for chomchomals • Northeast food of drink</p>
Shapes of learning	<p>Learning in northeast is flexible and it can takes any shap of learning as far it is fit with [people needs. E-learning is a good access for learning employer there is a project work on ICT skills for business for both employer and employees we work according to learning demand and skills, we need address for GSCE.</p> <p>Age 11 to up</p>	<p>50% of young people have to be at university by the age 30 max.</p>
Evaluation	<p>We considered high level skills is 3 and above , significant of our funding go to business link, they monitor performance by questioner, angegement record, telling about update prespective. PSA target, we measurement by how w e will achieve by our target achievement,we looks to the government set of PSA target, how we achieve these target using benchmark.</p> <p>Also by <u>GVA</u> which is <u>GDP</u> we use if there is increaser so we achieve our target</p>	<p>50% of people has money and literacy problems</p>
	<p><u>Gross value Added</u>                      <u>Gross Domestic product</u></p>	
What is the leaning meaning	<p>"Learning is accusation of knowledge for particular need." Chris Taylor</p>	



	<p>NVQ level 3 and 4. the idea is based on one northeast bring professors in different sectors for the company, professors set with employees and give them training (cascading knowledge) to raise the qualification level of the employees and to makes them gain high level of skills. The costs for this scheme is shared between company and one northeast, and that encourage the company to raise the qualification for its employees.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>There is other scheme it is national scheme it calls KTP it is a pilot project and it work in specific sectors such as food and drink, this scheme support individuals and companies. Basically in funding.</li> </ul>	
Identify learning needs	<p>Onenortheast is lie on the needs that identified by LSC,SSC(sector and skills council), RSP, Sine(skills industrial Northeast), evaluation from other project done by consultancies, other partners from government and assembly and job centre plus, but job centre with limits.</p>	<p>Tees Valley for chemicals          northumbria food &amp; drink          50% of young people have to be at university by the age 30 min</p>
Shapes of learning	<p>Learning in northeast is flexible and it can takes any shap of learning as far it is fit with [people needs. E-learning is a good access for learning employer there is a project work on ICT skills for business for both employer and employees we work according to learning demand and skills, we need address for GSCE.          Age 11 to up</p>	<p>50% of couple has memory and literacy problems</p>
Evaluation	<p>We considered high level skills is 3 and above , significant of our funding go to business link, they monitor performance by questioner, angement record, telling about update prespective. PSA target, we measurement by how w e will achieve by our target achievement,we looks to the government set of PSA target, how we achieve these target using benchmark.          Also by <u>GVA</u> which is <u>GDP</u> we use if there is increaser so we achieve our target</p>	
	<p>Gross value Added</p>	<p>Gross Domestic Product</p>
What is the learning meaning	<p>"Learning is accusation of knowledge for particular need."          Chris Taylor</p>	



## Learner

Danny Taylor / South Tyneside Community SCVS  
Learner based on work from voluntary service  
University of Sunderland

### Courses

I have done

① NVQ 2 & 3 Using Community Work through employer for 3 month face to face course.

② Child Protection

③ Equal opportunity

④ Data Protection

⑤ Introduction for Community

⑥ moving and handling

most of last courses are one day courses

### Why you done these courses

because I have to do the based on employment contract, I was work in "Young Care Careers" and I choose, The one I chose is introduction for Community because it will give me opportunity to gain job because I was plan to work in voluntary

### Why you choose this work

organisation. I like it because it relaxing work and I work with people in relaxing job

### do you feel you want to do another course

① Yes, Drugs and alcohol course for 1 year in the NECA organisation and gain certificate from open college, it's running part time so it will be easy to do it with the job.

② Volunteer and management courses

③ fundraising training

### Which course you prefer

I prefer face to face learning because it helps to ask questions and feel comfortable.



① health and safety in the work place.

what you  
will gain

B.A in youth and community work study.

he has  
computer  
skills gained  
from school  
and college.

and choose  
in your  
life

Working in voluntary organisation like my job  
and give me big experience more than I can get it  
if I work paid work during studying.

some people

I work since age 12 because this what their  
family telling them.

meaning  
of learning

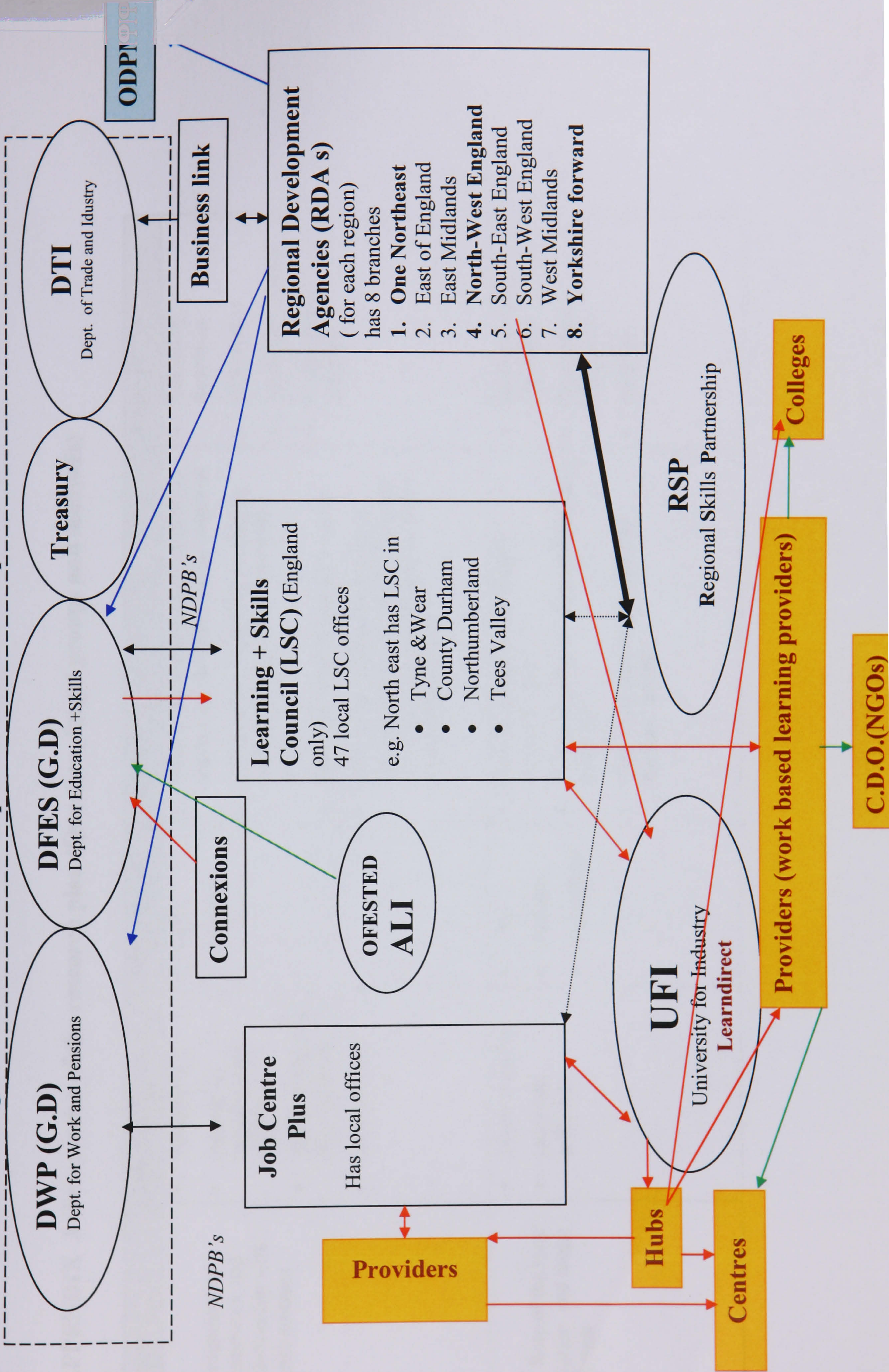
" Learning it grow up the person more than  
depend on work learning "

why you  
think  
government  
do that

" To get the unemployed number down and  
to spread the Education between people and  
to targeted the culture that raising unemployment "



APPENDIX 2: diagram shows the relationship between different departments





### APPENDIX 3 :Perspective of the research plan (Question, target groups and methods)

Topic	Sub-topic	Target groups	Questions	Methods
* organisation framework and relationship with other partners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Framework</li> <li>• Strategy to implement the objective</li> <li>• Relationship with other partners</li> <li>• learners needs</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• LSC</li> <li>• Partners</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What is the framework of the LSC to implement the EDS and the objective</li> <li>• Which project that LSC conduct to achieve the objective mentioned above</li> <li>• How LSC identify learner's needs</li> <li>• Who is the responsible to deliver learning courses for the local people and employee, and is there criteria to choose this partners.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Secondary Resources</li> <li>• Observation</li> <li>• Formal intered interviews</li> <li>• Unstructured interviews</li> </ul>
* Role of the local partner and target groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learners needs</li> <li>• Daily life problems</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• LSC</li> <li>• Partners</li> <li>• Learndirect</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How the organisation identify learner's needs?</li> <li>• How is problems facing adults in their daily life ?</li> <li>• How other partners can identify learners' needs?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• semi-structure interviews</li> <li>• unstructured interviews</li> <li>• Ranking</li> </ul>



Topic	Sub-topic	Target groups	Questions	Methods
* Employees and learners and employers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• employee needs</li> <li>• Knowledge about courses</li> <li>• Needs for courses</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• LSC</li> <li>• Learndirect</li> <li>• Company</li> <li>• Employers</li> <li>• Job centre plus</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• who identify the employees needs?</li> <li>• How you know as accompany about these courses?</li> <li>• Does the employer ask for courses?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Semi-structure interviews</li> <li>• Focus group discussion</li> <li>• Unstructured interviews</li> <li>• Ranking</li> <li>• Diagrams</li> </ul>
* Learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Meaning of learning</li> <li>• Kind of learning</li> <li>• Learning project</li> <li>• Courses</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learners</li> <li>• LSC</li> <li>• Learn direct</li> <li>• Job centre plus</li> <li>• One North East</li> <li>• Courses designers</li> <li>• Learning leaders</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How people know about the courses?</li> <li>• What is the meaning of learning?</li> <li>• Which kind of learning?</li> <li>• Which course do you like?</li> <li>• Do you think there are other learning courses need to be taken?</li> <li>• Have you asked or needs for the courses you have been taken?</li> <li>• What is motivating you to learning?</li> <li>• What is the advantage of learning?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• semi-structure interviews</li> <li>• Focus group discussion</li> <li>• Case studies</li> <li>• Ranking</li> <li>• Unstructured interviews</li> </ul>
* Impact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• After courses</li> <li>• Ways of measurement the impact</li> <li>• Impact on personal level and on the company level or community level.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• LSC</li> <li>• Partners</li> <li>• Job centre</li> <li>• Learn direct</li> <li>• Course designers</li> <li>• Learning leaders</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What is the step after the courses?</li> <li>• Is there any measurement for the impact of these courses after finished?</li> <li>• How employer measurement the impact?</li> <li>• Is there any specific organisation measurement the impact?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• semi-structure interviews</li> <li>• unstructured interviews</li> <li>• secondary resources</li> </ul>



APPENDIX 4 : The Learndirect categories and the courses covered under each category

Categories	Portfolio	Courses covered	Description of portfolio aim
Information Communication Technology (ICT)	ICT user portfolio	Introduction –Advance-expert – PC, network and internet support- operating system support e.g. Microsoft windows 2000 – software development – programming- e-commerce- project management- website design and administration	This is aimed at learners who want to improve their knowledge of computers, the internet and office applications such as word processing and spreadsheets.
	ICT Professional portfolio		This is aimed at learners who are either already working in an IT role and are seeking professional development, or would like to move into an IT role and need to acquire basic knowledge
Business and Management (BAM)	Generic courses	Leadership, team and personal development- training, facilitation and communication skills- understanding budgeting and finance- legislation in the UK workplace- customer service.  Communication skills- project management, leadership and assertiveness- stress and time management- meetings, presentation and appraisal skills- coaching- finance for the non-financial manager- equal opportunities- customer care.  Building a winning team- setting up your own business- marketing, recruitment and finance- putting your business on the web- your business and the law- recruiting and keeping staff- plugging ICT in to your business	These courses have been designed for Large SME(small to medium enterprise up to 249 employees) and for micro SMEs (small to medium enterprises with fewer than 20 employees). These courses for the owners, managers and staff who wish to improve business skills or solve business problems, or for any individual looking to improve general business and management skills.

10th



<b>Categories</b>	<b>Portfolio</b>	<b>Courses covered</b>	<b>Description of portfolio aim</b>
Business and Management (BAM) (Continued)	Courses for the automotive industry	Production and standard operations- continuous improvement- supply chain- problem-solving tools and techniques- engineering and repair- world-class manufacturing- motor vehicle.	Many of these courses cover skills that are generic and could be useful to operatives working in any manufacturing or engineering driven process or motor vehicle engineering and repair environment.
	Environmental technologies and services courses	Profit form environmental management- your business and the environment- greening the workforce- implementing an EMS- sustainable development for all- farm diversification.	These courses have been designed for non environmental specialists with responsibilities for environmental management, and owner-mangers/ senior executives and the workforce of companies involved in environmental good practice.
	Courses for the retail and distribution industry	New courses are currently continually being developed by Learndirect	These courses are covering two separated sectors of retail and distribution.
Skills for Life	Courses designed to help learner improve the skills needed for work and everyday life	These courses included basic skills, and also packages for speakers of other languages who want to improve their knowledge of English (ESOL)	



**APPENDIX 5: Table of the 25 sectors and their field of work**

No.	Sector	Field of the sector	No.	Sector	Field of the sector
1	Automotive Skills	The retail Motor industry	14	Skills for Logistics	Freight logistics industry
2	Cogent	Chemical, nuclear, oil and gas, petroleum and polymer industries	15	Skills Active	Active leisure and learning
3	Construction skills	Construction industry	16	skillset	Audio-visual industries
4	Energy& Utility Skills	Electricity, gas, waste management and water industries	17	Skillsmart	Retail
5	e-skills UK	Information technology, telecommunications and contact centres	18	Summitskills	Building Services, Engineering (Electro-Technical, heating, ventilating, air conditioning, refrigeration and plumbing)
6	Financial Services skills Council	Financial services industry	19	Asset skills	Property, housing, cleaning and facilities management
7	Improve	Food and drink manufacturing and processing	20	Central Government	Central Government department and NDPBs
8	Lantra	Environmental and land-based industries	21	Creative and cultural industries	Arts, museums and galleries, heritage, crafts and design
9	People 1st	Hospitality, leisure travel and tourism	22	Go skills	passenger transport
10	SEMTA	Science, engineering and manufacturing technologies	23	Lifelong learning UK	Community-based learning and development, further education, higher education, library and information services, work-based learning
11	Skillfast-UK	Apparel, footwear, textiles and related businesses	24	Process and manufacturing	Processing and manufacturing industries
12	Skills for Health	All staff groups working in NHS, independent and voluntary health organisations	25	Social care, children and young people	Social care and work with children, young people and families.
13	Skills for Justice	Police, prisons, probation service, youth justice, immigration, detention and courts			



**APPENDIX 6: The structure of training services in the NCVS**

